DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 201 827 CE 028 871

TITLE	Employment Goals of the World Plan of Action: Developments and Issues in the United States. Report for the World Conference on the United Nations Decade for Women, 1976-1985.
INSTITUTION	Women's Bureau (DOL), Washington, D.C.
PUB DATE	Jul 80
NOTE	84p.; Photographs will not reproduce well. Report presented at the World Conference of the United Nations Decade for Women (Copenhagen, Denmark, July 1980).
AVAILABLE FROM	Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, DC 20402 (Stock No. 029-002-00057-6, $3.75).
EDRS PRICE	MF01/PC04 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS	Adults; Affirmative Action; *Agency Role; Blacks; Civil Rights Legislation; Economic Status; Employed Parents; *Employed Women; Employment; *Employment Level; Employment Programs; *Equal Opportunities (Jobs); Females; Hispanic Americans; Labor Force; *Policy; Salary Wage Differentials; Sex Discrimination; *Sex Fairness; Social Agencies; Sociocultural Patterns; Spouses; Voluntary Agencies
IDENTIFIERS	United Nations Decade for Women; United States; *World Plan of Action

ABSTRACT

This report focuses on economic, social, and legal development affecting women's employment in the United States during the first half of the United Nations Decade for Women. The first section reports on the economic roles of women in the U.S. as their participation in the labor force reached historically high levels during the last half of the 1970s. The employment status is detailed for such selected subgroups of the women's labor force as working mothers and wives, women who maintain families, Hispanic women, and Black women. Segregation is also addressed. Section 2 presents an analysis of policy developments and issues relevant to the World Plan of Action. It discusses measures and programs to reduce discrimination in employment as well as policies affecting the opportunities and economic regards for women who have changing and multiple roles. The final section highlights the initiatives of voluntary, nongovernmental organizations. Examples include training and employment programs to integrate women in the work force, efforts to eliminate obstacles to women's employment, increasing women's participation in trade unions, social secutity and other retirement income, and entrepreneurship. Sixteen statistical tables and a reference list are appended. (YLB)

****
* Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made *
* from the original document. *
****

Employment Goals of the World Plan of Action: Developments and Issues in the United States

Report for
The World Conference on the
United Nations Decade for Women
1976-1985

U.S. Department of Labor
Ray Marshall, Secretary

Women's Bureau
Alexis M. Herman, Director

July 1980

ED201827

CE 028 871

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH,
EDUCATION & WELFARE
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF
EDUCATION

THIS DOCUMENT HAS BEEN REPRODUCED EXACTLY AS RECEIVED FROM THE PERSON OR ORGANIZATION ORIGINATING IT. POINTS OF VIEW OR OPINIONS STATED DO NOT NECESSARILY REPRESENT OFFICIAL NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION POSITION OR POLICY

For sale by the Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office
Washington, D.C. 20402

Material contained in this publication is in the public domain and may be reproduced, fully or partially, without permission of the Federal Government. Source credit is requested but not required. Permission is required only to reproduce any copyrighted material contained herein.

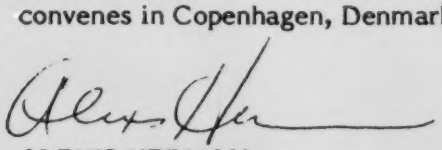
FOREWORD

The Women's Bureau is pleased to have had the opportunity to coordinate this report of the economic, social, and legal developments affecting women's employment in our country during the first half of the United Nations Decade for Women. We want to emphasize that the report cannot possibly cover the full range of serious activity undertaken by officials and by nonofficial groups in the United States toward not only the World Plan of Action but also our own national agenda to achieve women's full rights and equality, which was developed in Houston in 1977.

The first section of this paper reports on the economic roles of women in the United States as their participation in the labor force reached historically high levels during the last half of the 1970's. The second section presents an analysis of policy developments and issues relevant to the Plan. While these sections highlight the years 1975-79, they briefly review some earlier developments as a context for recent actions. Portions of these sections appear also in the United States National Report for the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development High Level Conference on the Employment of Women.

The final section of the paper, recognizing that the UN General Assembly in 1975 called upon both governmental and nongovernmental organizations to aid in carrying out the Plan, highlights the initiatives of voluntary groups. These examples at best give only a minimal overview of the range and extent of the accomplishments of this vital segment of the American sociopolitical system.

We look forward to sharing these developments and learning about progress of other countries at mid-decade toward the employment goals of the World Plan of Action when the World Conference of the United Nations Decade for Women convenes in Copenhagen, Denmark, in July 1980.



ALEXIS HERMAN
Director, Women's Bureau

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Many departments and agencies of the United States Government contributed to the preparation of this document, including the National Commission on Employment and Unemployment Statistics; Civil Rights Division, Department of Justice; Equal Employment Opportunity Commission; Office of the Assistant Secretary for Education, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare; United States Commission on Civil Rights; President's Advisory Committee for Women; and Interdepartmental Task Force on Women.

Within the Department of Labor contributions were received from the Occupational Safety and Health Administration; Bureau of Labor Statistics; Office of the Assistant Secretary for Policy, Evaluation and Research; Office of Federal Contract Compliance Programs; Bureau of International Labor Affairs; Employment and Training Administration; and Labor-Management Services Administration.

The cooperation of nongovernmental organizations who provided the examples cited in section III is also acknowledged with deep appreciation.

CONTENTS

	Page
FOREWORD	iii
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS	iv
INTRODUCTION	1
I. THE ECONOMIC ROLES OF WOMEN IN THE UNITED STATES	3
Employment and Unemployment	3
Working Mothers and Wives	3
Women Who Maintain Families	4
Adult Women	5
Teenagers	6
Hispanic Women	6
Black Women	7
Segregation of Labor Markets	8
Industrial Distribution	9
Occupational Distribution	9
The Earnings Gap	10
Union Members	11
Sources of Segregation	12
The Future: The 1980's	12
II. POLICY ANALYSIS	17
MEASURES AND PROGRAMS TO REDUCE DISCRIMINATION IN EMPLOYMENT	17
Historical Development of Multiple Remedies	17
Enforcement Experience	19
Coordination	20
Policy Clarification	20
Emerging Policies	22
Pay equity	22
Occupational safety and health	23
Sexual harassment	24
POLICIES AFFECTING THE OPPORTUNITIES AND ECONOMIC REWARDS FOR WOMEN WHO HAVE CHANGING AND MULTIPLE ROLES	25
Employment Training Programs and Policies	25
Comprehensive Employment and Training Act of 1973 (CETA)	25
Youth programs	26
Apprenticeship	28
The Work Incentive Program (WIN)	28
Educational Equity	29
Child Care	29
Social Security	31
Private Pensions	31
Unemployment Compensation	32

Federal Income Tax 33
Women Business Owners 33
Alternative Work Patterns 34
Coordination 35
The Equal Rights Amendment 35

III. NONGOVERNMENTAL ORGANIZATIONS AND THE WORLD PLAN OF ACTION: INITIATIVES WORKING TOWARD THE GOALS . . . 39

Efforts To Secure and Protect Legal Rights of Women Workers . . 40
Training and Employment Programs To Integrate Women in the Work Force 40
Rural women 44
Ethnic groups. 44
Displaced homemakers 45
Special Efforts To Eliminate Obstacles to Women's Employment . . 46
Child care 46
Alternative work patterns: part time, flextime 49
Pay equity 50
Increasing the Participation of Women in Trade Unions 51
Social Security and Other Retirement Income 51
Entrepreneurship 52

SUMMARY 53

APPENDIX A - Statistical Tables

APPENDIX B - Reference List

INTRODUCTION

The World Conference of the United Nations Decade for Women, meeting in Copenhagen, Denmark, in July 1980, provides an opportunity to review progress toward goals of the World Plan of Action at mid-decade and to propose steps for the five years ahead.

The employment goals of the Plan and related economic matters provide the framework for the overview in this paper. The Plan calls for:

--achieving equality of opportunity and treatment for women workers and their integration into the labor force in accordance with the accepted international standards: the right to work, to equal pay for equal work, to equal conditions of work and to advancement;

--fostering positive attitudes toward the employment of women, irrespective of marital status, among employers and society at large;

--overcoming the concentration of women in a limited number of occupations at lower levels of skill and remuneration;

--eliminating obstacles based on stereotyping divisions of labor;

--achieving a substantial increase in the number of qualified women in skilled and technical work and in management and policymaking in commerce, industry and trade;

--developing guidelines, effective targets and machinery for implementing principles of the Plan;

--encouraging self-help and self-help activities, especially in community development and entrepreneurial skills;

--assuring participation of rural women in rural development;

--facilitating the combination of family and work responsibilities, for example, a general reduction and/or staggering of working hours, flexible working hours and part-time work;

--eliminating discriminatory treatment of women in social security schemes;

--strengthening the leadership of trade union and volunteer organizations concerned with the status of women in achieving the goals set forth.

The United States progress in achieving the employment goals of the World Plan of Action for women has been uneven. The nation is large, complex, and diverse, with tremendous demands made on its economy and culture, and there are not likely to be rapid and simple solutions to such complex problems as meeting the World Plan of Action goals. Still, progress has been achieved, as has been documented in the following pages. Much remains to be achieved and this, too, has been reported.

Today women are working in a range of apprenticeable and other non-traditional as well as traditional jobs--as optometrists, electricians, forklift operators, and carpenters, as well as typists and dental technicians.

I. THE ECONOMIC ROLES OF WOMEN IN THE UNITED STATES

The decade of the 1970's saw an unprecedented movement of women into the labor force in the United States. Except for the 1970-71 period, an average of well over a million women entered or reentered the labor force annually. Even the sharpest economic downturn since the 1930's (1974-1975) did not dampen women's labor force increases. In fact, the gain of 1.9 million women during 1978 set a record. The decade's pattern of tremendous growth in women's employment was accompanied by major social and legislative initiatives that have modified the attitudes and practices of society in general, and of women in particular.

Employment and Unemployment

The civilian labor force of women 16 years and over (working or looking for work) increased from 37 million in 1975 to more than 43 million in 1979, greatly outpacing the labor force gains among men. As labor force gains outpaced gains in population, women's labor force participation rate (labor force as a percent of population) increased from 46 percent to 51 percent in the last 5 years of the decade. Most of this growth in the labor force of women reflected their extraordinary employment gains.

Women workers increased by nearly 7 million over the 1975-79 period, reaching a record level of more than 40 million in 1979. The sharp increase in employment among women was several times their population growth and outstripped the rate of employment growth in the Nation as a whole. Most significantly, 60 percent of the increase in total employment during the period was of women.

The unemployment rate for women, which is usually greater than for men, moved down from its recession peak of 10.1 percent in May 1975 to 6.8 percent for the year 1979. The gap between the unemployment rates of women and men tends to widen during periods of economic growth and to narrow during periods of retrenchment. By 1979, the gap which had widened immediately following the recession was already narrowing. Although the vast majority of women benefited from the strength in the demand for labor in the recovery phase after the 1974-75 recession and were employed, certain subgroups of women--for example, black women and teenagers--did not share equally in the gains. Their plight is most readily seen in their high unemployment rates and low earnings. The single most important problem continuing to face all women in the labor force is job segregation and its resulting low earnings. The following sections detail the employment status of selected subgroups of the women's labor force.

Working Mothers and Wives

Changing living arrangements of families were reflected in the labor force patterns of women. People chose to remain single longer or terminated many marriages by divorce or permanent separations. Aside from changing marital patterns, several other factors of major importance for increased labor force participation of women were longer life expectancies, smaller families, rising expectations and rising real wages. Of particular significance were increases in employment among married women and women with young children. This development has important implications for child care initiatives discussed in parts II and III.

Much of women's record increase in labor force participation since 1975 occurred among those under 35 years of age. Often these women were married or had been married and had school age or pre-school age children. Although in the past, women ages 25 to 34 frequently stopped working when they married or had children, this behavior has become less common. The labor force participation of this age group advanced over 9 percentage points between 1975 and 1979, when it reached 64 percent.

The labor force participation rate of mothers who had ever been married remained stable over the last half of the decade at about 50 percent. After 1975, however, there was rapid growth in the number of women whose husbands were absent (divorced, deceased, or separated) and who had children of school age or pre-school age. The number grew from 2.7 million to 3.3 million, or over 19 percent, from 1975 to 1979. At the end of the decade, about 60 percent of these women whose husbands were absent were divorced mothers.

Although married women with husbands present were the fastest growing group earlier in the decade, by the mid-decade they were displaced by the more rapidly increasing number of single women who maintain families. The number of wives grew, however, by nearly 13 percent--from 11.4 to 12.9 million between 1975 and 1979. Their participation rate rose from 44.9 to 51.9 percent in 5 years.

The number of single women in the labor force increased 30 percent between 1975 and 1979--from 8.5 million to just over 11 million. Their participation rate increased from 56.7 to 62.7 percent. A little over 4 percent of these women (493,000) had school age or pre-school age children in 1979. The unemployment rate of these single mothers hovered at 21 percent in 1979, and generally there was no other employed person in their families while they were out of work.

Women Who Maintain Families

Between 1975 and 1979 the number of families maintained by women increased some 17 percent--from 7.2 to 8.5 million. Many of the women in this group were widowed, divorced, or separated from their husbands; the remainder consisted largely of single women who had never married.

Nearly five million of the women maintaining families were in the labor force in 1979, and represented 60 percent of all such women. The labor force participation of these women was up from 3.9 million, and 54 percent, in 1973. Generally women who maintain families are poor, less educated, and thus less able to meet the increasing skill demands of the modern workplace. Nonetheless, most of these women in the labor force are employed; however, they are overrepresented in occupations associated with higher unemployment rates compared with other segments of the women's labor force. Their unemployment rate, at 8.3 percent in 1979, remained well above that for all women (6.8 percent) but had dropped from 10.0 percent in 1975.

In 1979, more than 3 of every 5 women maintaining families had at least one child but usually two or more children under age 18 living at home, and the number of children in such families has increased. Women maintaining one-parent families with children under 18 were far more likely to be in the labor force than women without any children under 18 living at home. About two-thirds of the latter group were widows living with one or more relatives ages 18 and over.

Although more likely to work, the women with children under 18 had a considerably lower family income than women with no children at home. Forty-two percent of women maintaining one-parent families had incomes below the poverty level in 1978, the latest calendar year for which income data are available. A large proportion of one-parent families were maintained by black women; their families included half of all children living in poverty. Where there were no children under 18 in families maintained by women, only 7 percent of the families lived below the poverty level.

	March 1979		
	Population (in thousands)	Labor force participation rate	Median family income 1978
Women maintaining families, total . .	8,456	59.5	$8,500
With children under 18 years	5,288	65.9	7,000
With children 6-17 years	3,362	71.6	8,700
With children under 6 years . . .	1,926	56.1	4,700
With no children under 18 years . .	3,168	48.8	12,000

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Adult Women

All women experienced similar problems in the labor market related to access to the full range of jobs, low pay for the jobs, stress because of dual roles at home and at work and needs for counseling, family support systems and flexible hours. The problems of prime working age women (ages 20 to 64 years), however, related to access to nontraditional jobs. Although adult women obtained the largest proportion of the nontraditional jobs filled by women in the last 5 years, most women are still employed in the clerical and service occupations. The rising labor force participation of women principally reflected adult women's entry into the job market, especially those ages 20 to 44. Even for women over 40, the participation rate went up while the rate for men in that age group declined. Some of the decline in participation of men has been explained by the changing mix of jobs as the economy shifted toward services, and a trend toward early retirement of some men.

Reflecting expanding economic activity of women in their mid-life, the labor force participation rate for women ages 40 to 64 years was 53.2 percent in 1979, greater than the 51 percent rate for women 16 and over. Many of these mature women (40-64 years) entered the labor force after their children were grown. Others had experienced divorce, loss of a spouse or separation. Some had experienced such sudden changes in their family and economic circumstances that they became known as displaced homemakers. These latter women needed particular support systems, retraining and assistance in order to make transitions from their former lives at home to lives as workers in the paid labor force. (See the discussion on page 45.)

Of the 15.2 million working women ages 40 to 64 years, only 566,000 were unemployed. Their 3.7 percent unemployment rate was significantly below the 9.7 percent rate for the younger adult women and the 16.4 percent for teenaged women. However, while older women's unemployment rate is lower than that of younger women, their unemployment may mean a pronounced reduction in incomes since their unemployment is likely to be prolonged. Older women may encounter employers who prefer to hire younger employees and they may face competition from more highly skilled or more recently trained younger workers. Almost as many mature women were counted as discouraged workers as were counted as unemployed in 1979. (Discouraged workers are persons who are no longer actively seeking employment because they believe that they cannot obtain a job. They are not counted among the unemployed.) Discouraged women over the age of 60 accounted for 16 percent of all discouraged women workers; however, unemployed women over the age of 60 accounted for only 3 percent of all unemployed women.

Poverty was a reality for many older women. Those ages 45 to 64 years were nearly two-fifths (37.2 percent in 1977) of all poor women between the ages of 22 and 64 years. For many, widowhood, marital breakup and illness or retirement of the spouse forced them to return to the labor force to compensate for lost income. Most often they were employed in a limited range of low-paying occupations.

Teenagers

Teenage women (like teenage men) are hampered in the United States job market. Many have had no previous work experience, some change jobs often or move into and out of the labor force, and others have had problems making the transition from school to work. Still, participation in the labor force of young women 16 to 19 years old increased more rapidly in the last 5 years of the decade, from 49.3 percent in 1975 to 54.5 percent in 1979, than in the first half of the decade. Even during this period of economic growth, teenage women's unemployment rate has been several times that of adults. Women ages 16 to 19 years had an unemployment rate of 19.7 percent in 1975 compared with 8.0 percent for those ages 20 and over. By the end of the decade, teenage women's unemployment rate had moved down to 16.4 percent, but that for adult women was 5.7 percent. Minority teenagers fared worst of all, ending the decade with an unemployment rate of 35.7 percent for 1979.

Hispanic Women

Women of Hispanic origin shared in the employment gains made by all women between 1976 and 1979, years for which comparable data are available. Hispanic women are not a homogeneous ethnic group in the United States and gains in labor force activity were not shared equally among component groups. Of the Hispanic ethnic groups for which data are tabulated separately, women of Mexican origin account for the largest proportion of Hispanic women working or looking for work, 57 percent, followed distantly by women of Puerto Rican origin, 11 percent, and those of Cuban origin, 9 percent. Therefore, the overall employment situation for Hispanic women largely reflects that of women of Mexican origin. In addition to differences by size, considerable variation among the major ethnic groups exists in virtually all employment related characteristics. Persons classified by Hispanic ethnicity are also classified according to race--black or white. According to the 1970 Census, 96 percent of the Hispanic population group was counted as white.

The labor force participation rate measures the work force attachment of a population. Among all women of Hispanic origin, 48 percent participated in work activities, somewhat lower than the rate for all women at 51 percent. The total obscures differences in participation among the various ethnic groups and mainly reflects the lower rate of women of Puerto Rican origin compared with other Hispanic ethnic groups. At 35 percent, women of Puerto Rican origin posted the lowest labor force participation rate in 1979 compared with a high of 55 percent among women of Cuban origin. Part of the answer for these lower rates among Puerto Rican women may lie in the traditional role of women in the family. Women of Puerto Rican origin had higher fertility rates and lower educational attainment compared with women of Cuban origin. Yet, women of Mexican origin, who had more children in their families than Puerto Rican and other Hispanic women, posted a labor force participation rate of 48 percent in 1979, close to that of all women, and considerably above that of women of Puerto Rican origin. Probably of more significance than traditional family roles are the divergent age distributions which have a strong effect on labor force participation. Women of Puerto Rican origin are younger compared with other Hispanic ethnic groups, reflecting the continued movement of young people to the United States mainland from Puerto Rico.

The Hispanic women's labor force expanded by more than 300,000 between 1976 and 1979, reaching 1.7 million who were working or looking for work by 1979. The labor force gains largely reflect the expansion in employment to 1.6 million in 1979. Women of Mexican origin accounted for a greater than proportional share of the gain in employment--more than 70 percent of the increase, compared with about 60 percent share of the labor force. On the other hand, unemployment moving down from recession highs was still higher than that for all women, but somewhat lower than that posted by nonwhite (largely black) women workers. At 8.9 percent in 1979, the jobless rate ranged from a low of 7.9 percent among women of Cuban origin to a high of 9.9 percent among women of Mexican origin, not too much different from that of 9.3 percent for women of Puerto Rican origin.

Women of Hispanic origin were employed in blue-collar occupations to a greater extent than other women. Regardless of ethnicity, employed Hispanics were more concentrated in lower paid, lesser skilled occupations than the overall work force. More than half of the employed women in each ethnic group were either clerical workers or nontransport operatives in 1979. Although the large percentage of Hispanic women employed in clerical positions is similar to the situation among all women, their heavy concentration in operatives jobs--dressmakers, assemblers, machine operators, and operators of similar equipment--is strikingly unlike other women.

Black Women

Black women have not recovered from the 1974-75 economic slowdown to the same degree as the general population or other women who identified themselves as "other than white"--including American Indians, Alaskan natives, Asian Americans, and Pacific Islanders. The level of employment for all black and other nonwhite women workers reached 5.1 million in 1979, up nearly 800,000 from 1976. However, black women alone accounted for substantially less than a proportional share--less than 20 percent--of the gain in employment. At the same time, black women accounted for the overwhelming majority of all women in the entire "nonwhite" group.

The labor force participation rate of black women increased as rapidly as that of other women. At 53.1 percent in 1979, the participation rate for black women was up 3.3 percentage points from 1976, compared with 3.7 points for all women. Significantly, even the small additions to the labor force among black women have largely resulted in additions to unemployment. At 14.8 percent in 1979, their unemployment rate was essentially unchanged from the 14.2 percent posted in 1976. Moreover, their unemployment was considerably higher than that for all women and minorities other than black. The jobless rates for black women reflect the extremely high unemployment among black teenagers 16 to 19 years. The unemployment rate of these young black women was several times the rate of their white counterparts, 39.1 versus 13.8 percent at the end of 1979. Despite the obstacles to finding work, the number of teenage black women looking for work has been growing about three times faster than their population.

In addition to discriminatory barriers, other explanatory factors in the lack of progress in reducing unemployment among black women may be their occupational and educational attainment, despite the progress made by other women in these areas. About half of the overall employment growth in the recent recovery phase took place in white-collar and craft occupations. Many of the black unemployed did not have occupational experience or educational backgrounds to move into those areas of job growth. Only about one-fourth had previously worked in those occupations, and more than half had not completed high school.

Segregation of Labor Markets

The most noticeable features of the American labor market are the industrial and occupational segregation of men and women, differences in the level of responsibility they are given, and in their opportunities for advancement. In fact, this segregation is recognized as the single most important problem facing women in the labor force because it is intimately tied to women's lower earnings. Each of these features will be discussed below.

By 1975, while most women continued to find employment in traditionally female jobs, many were making efforts to establish careers in new occupations, with new skill requirements, and in new and growing industries. Programs were developed to focus on educational and training opportunities, preapprenticeship and apprenticeship training, vocational training, increased professional opportunities, and the encouragement of entrepreneurship for women. By 1979 there had been some increase in women's employment in nontraditional jobs, such as the skilled trades in construction, truck driving, airplane piloting, telephone repairing, law and medicine. The fact remains, however, that women are still largely employed in the same occupations and industries where they have always found employment and, because of the recent growth patterns of the United States economy, opportunities in traditional areas have outstripped the growth in many of the male-dominated areas.

Recent studies have shown that occupational segregation of women protected them somewhat from the effects of the recession. Since they were employed primarily in occupations and industries that suffered least from the economic setback (such as services, white-collar jobs, and public employment), their jobs

were the least vulnerable to recession-induced layoffs that occurred primarily in manufacturing occupations. However, those women who had entered nontraditional production jobs were severely affected, in part due to "last hired-first fired" layoff agreements or practices.

Industrial Distribution

During the 1970's shifts in the industrial distribution of employees toward service producing industries continued. Women grew as a percentage of total nonagricultural employment from 39 percent in 1975 to 42 percent in 1979. The highest growth industries have been services; wholesale and retail trade; finance, insurance and real estate; and State and local governments, and the largest numerical growth of women employees occurred in those sectors. There was little growth in manufacturing, construction, transportation, or the Federal Government, but women's employment grew more quickly in these sectors than did total employment in each. The greatest percentage increases for women compared with the growth in total employment were in mining and construction, largely because of the small numbers of women employees in these industries in 1975. These facts indicate that, although they are making progress in finding employment in nontraditional industries, the majority of women are now, and are likely to continue to be, employed in industries that have traditionally employed them.

Farm work provides jobs for less than 4 percent of all workers in the United States today. Just as in the nonagricultural sector women grew as a proportion of total employment since 1975. The fewer than half million farm women in 1979 accounted for 18 percent of all farm workers, an increase from 16 percent in 1975. Still, they represented less than 2 percent of all women in the labor force. Most of the women were farm laborers and supervisors and of these, more than half (54 percent) were unpaid family workers.

Occupational Distribution

Essentially, employment patterns of women in the United States have changed little since 1950. Of the 420-odd occupations listed by the 1950 census of occupations, women were employed primarily in 20. In 1978, only 9.9 percent of women employees held traditionally male jobs, 21.6 percent held jobs that are not sex stereotyped, and 68.5 percent held traditionally female jobs. Predominantly male occupations are defined as those with 25 percent or fewer women holding them whereas predominantly female occupations are those with 55 percent or more women. Occupations having between 25 and 55 percent women are considered fairly well integrated. (The definitions depend on the proportion of women in the labor force and will increase as women become a higher proportion of the work force.)

The encouragement of women's employment in jobs that are predominantly held by men has received strong support during the International Decade for Women. Historically, women have been employed in small numbers in virtually every job category listed by the national census of occupations. Since the inception of the World Plan, however, more women have begun to make inroads into higher salaried, often nontraditional, jobs. For example, in 1975 they were 21 percent of computer specialists, 7 percent of lawyers and judges, 14 percent of life scientists and physicists and 19 percent of managers; by 1979 women were 26, 12, 19 and 25

percent of these professions, respectively. From an immeasurable few they became over 7 percent of the industrial engineers, 5 percent of the construction painters and 3 percent of the machinists. Nevertheless, the great majority of women still hold jobs in the traditional fields in which women were employed in the 1950's and 1960's.

Despite small but important gains in specific jobs and in their share of jobs in all categories, women's employment profile across the broad spectrum of occupational groups did not change between 1975 and 1979. The largest single occupational group among women today is the clerical one--stenographers, typists, secretaries. In absolute numbers, the employment of women has increased the most in both clerical and service jobs (except private household). In 1979, 80 percent of all clerical workers and 59 percent of all nonhousehold service workers were women.

The Earnings Gap

Women are still working primarily in jobs at the low end of the pay scale. For example, in manufacturing, women are concentrated in clothing and electrical equipment manufacturing where wages are lower than in many other industries. Their occupational distribution is a major reason why women's earnings generally remain far below those of men. Since the 1960's, the average annual earnings of full-time year-round women workers have not improved with respect to men's. The stagnation in women's relative earnings has been attributed in part to the fact that a higher proportion of the female work force now consists of younger and less experienced women and older reentrants whose job skills are no longer current.

That women in the labor force have not attained earnings parity with men is especially important for women who support themselves and their children. In addition, many wives help to support their families. More than half the wives of working husbands are also in the labor force--many in part-time jobs. Their earnings supplement those of their husbands and enable their families to maintain, and in some cases to improve, their living standards.

Although the male-female earnings ratios vary considerably, women's earnings rarely approach parity with men's even in the same major occupation groups. Preliminary information on median usual weekly earnings of full-time wage and salary workers at mid-1979 indicated that women's paychecks were 62 percent of men's. Farm women's weekly earnings most closely approached those of comparably employed men at 82 percent. The earnings for both sexes, however, were the lowest of the reported occupational categories. Even professional women's pay was only 70 percent of men professionals' and women clerical workers took home only 63 percent of the pay of men in clerical positions. Allegations are increasingly being made by women individually and collectively that their jobs are undervalued and underpaid and that perceptions of the lesser value of work done by women have been translated into specifically lower wage rates.

By the late 1970's, men's and women's educational attainment was the same, although their fields of training still differed. However, in the scientific fields, the dollar gap between men and women with comparable educational attainment remained. Women have on average spent fewer years in the labor force than men although their attachment to work outside the home has increased markedly since

1950. A girl born in 1970 is expected to work about 25 years, compared with a girl born in 1950 who was forecast to work about 15 years. Over the same period, men's projected lifetime labor force participation actually declined slightly from 41.1 years to 40.0 years. Participation rates of younger cohorts of women are expected to be even more similar to men's, especially in the central working ages.

Union Members

Just as in the general work force, the usual weekly earnings of organized men also exceeded those of organized women and the gap was about the same as that between the sexes in the general labor force. Organized women's average weekly earnings were 60 percent of earnings of full-time year-round men in labor organizations. Even in unionized jobs, the occupational segregation of the sexes accounts for a considerable part of the earnings disparity. There are 5 times as many organized men managers as women managers in those occupations and 6 times as many men in unionized blue-collar jobs. Greater organization of men in the traditionally women's jobs also accounted for part of the earnings gap. For example, in service jobs unionized women were outnumbered by unionized men 2 to 1 and even in the clerical occupations where women are 8 of every 10 employees in the work force, there were only 4 unionized women to 3 unionized men.

Women's union membership generally is less than representative of their proportion in the civilian labor force. Only 14.5 percent of white women workers but 23.5 percent of black women were union members in 1976. Black women were 11 percent of employed wage and salary workers but were 14 percent of those workers represented by labor organizations. In office jobs, especially in clerical jobs, black workers were also more likely to be represented by labor organizations. Ten percent of all clerical workers were black women but 16 percent of the unionized women clerks were black.

Yet, despite the need to increase membership among women in all occupations in which they are employed and to continue to press for employment in the higher paying, less traditional occupations, there have been benefits to women's union membership. On the average, weekly earnings of organized women exceeded those of unorganized women in all industries by nearly 30 percent. Women tended to join unions already having a large female membership. In 1976 the 18 unions each representing 50,000 or more women accounted for 83 percent of the total of unionized women workers. This pattern is largely attributable to the continued employment of women in a limited number of occupations. Of the unions reporting their membership in both 1956 and 1976, 11 had large numbers of women members. Five unions that had experienced increased women's membership were the communication workers, retail clerks, service employees, electrical workers and wholesale workers.

The number of women holding union membership in the United States increased from 3.9 million in 1968 to 5.1 million in 1978. This growth has been continuous--10 percent between 1976 and 1978--reflecting the general strength of the United States economy in the recovery period and, in particular, a large increase in the demand for production workers in nonmanufacturing industries and government. Still, the rate at which women joined unions was outpaced by the rate at which they entered the labor force.

Sources of Segregation

The many sources of segregation that have been identified tend to reinforce each other. Stereotypical thinking about "men's jobs" and "women's jobs" pervades our society. It affects the behavior of employers, employment agencies, and the entire educational and job training system--elementary and secondary schools, vocational schools, training programs, and graduate schools. The same patterns are entrenched in the armed services, among legislators and other political leaders, and have clearly been evident in the expectations and actions of women themselves and of their families. However, the fact that women have shifted quickly into "men's jobs" in time of war or other times of serious labor shortage indicates that the constellation of forces is not immutable.

While most women entering the labor force in the 1970's found employment in traditionally female jobs, many others were preparing themselves for nontraditional employment or had embarked upon careers not considered suitable for women a few years earlier. Research studies showed that women's employment in the less traditional jobs resulted in increased earnings. The Department of Labor in the United States has recognized the close relationship between human resource development programs and assisting minorities and women to overcome artificial barriers to employment. While nationwide statistics do not show dramatic changes in job segregation for women, some projects designed for particular segments of the population offer encouragement. The United States recognizes that public policies designed to affect the labor market directly will make little headway if we lack other, related policies to change counseling and education and training programs and to increase the availability of child care and the flexibility of work schedules. In addition, we need to modify many other social and economic policies, such as the income tax, social security and pension systems. These issues are discussed in part II.

The Future: The 1980's

The most conservative projections through the 1980's forecast large increases in the labor force participation of women, especially those between the ages of 20 and 54. Even when assuming a low economic growth rate and a significant rebound in the birth rate (traditional barriers to women's employment), the Bureau of Labor Statistics expects participation of women 20 to 24 to increase to nearly 75 percent. Among women ages 25 to 54 (including the baby boom women), the low (no growth) estimate is 66 percent participation and the high estimate is over 70 percent during the 1980's. All indications are that women in the United States will continue to play an important and permanent role in the labor force.

One factor expected to affect the decisions of women regarding labor force participation is the opportunity cost of staying home and caring for their families versus the benefits of participating in the labor market. Growth in the variety of jobs and opportunities where women previously were excluded and relaxation of attitudes toward women's paid work outside the home will continue to encourage them to enter the labor force. As inflation continues, women's earnings are likely to be a growing necessity to family incomes, especially for newly formed families.

Although a small proportion of traditionally male jobs are held by women, the percentage increases can be dramatic. For example, there were only 336 enlisted Navy 1/ women on shipboard duty in late 1979, but the number is expected to increase to nearly 5,000 over the next 5 years. The number of women officers in the Navy, only 31 in late 1979, may well exceed 200 within 5 years. Overall, the number of women in the military is expected to double by 1984, to 12 percent of the total. In addition, for younger minority women, the substantial movement into white-collar jobs, even though they are largely clerical, represents some progress since there have been substantial shifts of older women out of lower paying agricultural and private household work. Hence, one must distinguish between the overall occupational distribution of women in the labor force, which is likely to change slowly, and the distribution of new entrants, which is changing more quickly as young women acquire nontraditional skills and perceive themselves as having more types of employment opportunities.

Despite the expected increase in women's educational levels, specific segments may require upgrading of education and skills training. For example, in March 1978, 30 percent of all women who maintained families had less than a high school education and only 9 percent had completed 4 or more years of college, compared with 21 and 15 percent of the married women with husbands present. In addition, many mature women workers may need to update their skills upon reentering the labor force. By October 1978, 67 percent or 700,000 women ages 35 and over who were in school were also in the labor force.

Furthermore, in certain professional areas requiring advanced degrees, demographic and industrial changes have resulted in mismatching between levels of education and work opportunities. In some cases, these mismatches may have serious consequences for traditionally educated women in the 1980's. For example, the number of available teachers exceeds the number of job opportunities in several fields. At the elementary and secondary school levels this will continue to be an especially serious problem for women. Also, serious questions remain about the relatively high level of training required for low-paying jobs that are traditionally held by women compared with those traditionally held by men.

As noted earlier, women have supplied workers for the growing service sector. Projections to 1985 indicate that this will continue, particularly in the fields of health care, maintenance and repair, advertising, and commercial cleaning. While previous projections for transportation and public utility employment indicated only moderate growth into the 1980's, reallocation of fuel resources may increase the demand for mass transportation employees. The finance, insurance, and real estate industries are projected to grow substantially. Women are likely to hold increasing numbers of jobs in all these areas. However, as in banking and credit, most are likely to remain primarily in those jobs with lower status and lower pay.

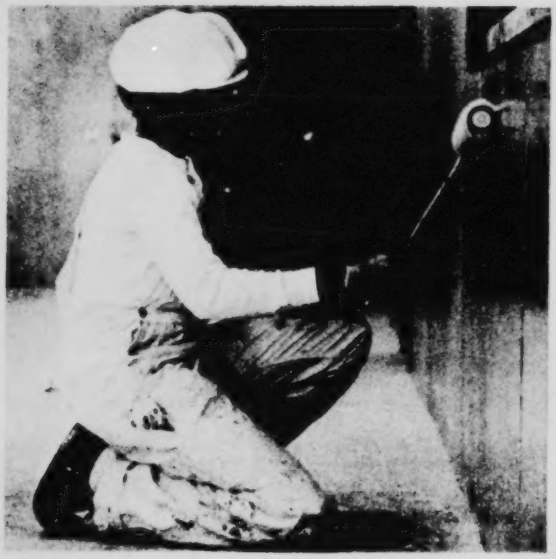
Contract construction, which grew rapidly between 1960 and 1968, stagnated from 1968 until 1976, but rebounded strongly for the next 3 years. Despite its cyclical sensitivity, however, the construction industry has been targeted by the United States Government as one with many opportunities for women to learn skills

---

1/ The military is not included in the civilian labor force in the United States, although it is counted in the total labor force.

through apprenticeship and other entry level jobs, and to earn wages comparable to those of men. Employment is expected to continue to grow in this industry and to provide about 5 million jobs by 1985. The goal, set by the Department of Labor, for Federal contractors who employ women in the skilled crafts is 6.9 percent of craft workers in 1981.

Although manufacturing industries are expected to grow only moderately, by 1985 there will be 23 million employees, an increase of about 20 percent since 1976. Nondurable goods, that part of manufacturing in which women have been largely employed as unskilled and semiskilled operatives, is expected to be weaker than the durable goods sector in which women have made only modest gains in the last decade. The durable goods sector, with its higher median earnings, will offer significant opportunities for women, especially in such major industries as transportation equipment, machinery, instruments, and related products.



Women continue to demonstrate that they can perform well in jobs usually held by men.

A veterinarian at work. Women accounted for 17.6 percent of all veterinarians in 1979, an increase from 10.5 percent in 1975.

II. POLICY ANALYSIS

The economic, cultural, demographic and political forces which led to the rapid increase of women's participation in the labor force raised many policy issues. Both governmental and private sector groups have addressed these issues.

As early as 1920 the Congress established a Women's Bureau in the Department of Labor to formulate standards and policies to promote the welfare of wage-earning women. A Presidential Commission established in 1961 made recommendations on eliminating barriers at the national level to the full participation of women in economic, social, civil and political affairs. Commissions appointed by governors and mayors have also had some voice in formulating public policy regarding women at the State and local levels. While examples of non-governmental activities appear in part III, it should be understood that women's organizations, civil rights groups and trade unions often provided the initiative for the policy development described here.

MEASURES AND PROGRAMS TO REDUCE DISCRIMINATION IN EMPLOYMENT

Historical Development of Multiple Remedies

The basic Federal laws aimed toward equality of opportunity and treatment for women workers in the United States were enacted in their original form in the mid-1960's. The first was the Equal Pay Act of 1963. Several States had enacted equal pay laws much earlier and certain wartime Federal regulations had established the equal pay principle. The act required that men and women who work in the same establishment must receive the same pay if their jobs require equal skill, effort and responsibility. As an amendment to the Federal minimum wage law, it was initially enforced by the Department of Labor.

The far more sweeping Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 made it unlawful to discriminate in hiring or firing; wages; fringe benefits; classifying, referring, assigning, or promoting employees; extending or assigning facilities; training or retraining or apprenticeship; or any other terms, conditions, or privileges of employment. Title VII grew primarily out of the struggle of minorities for civil rights in the 1960's; it prohibited discrimination in employment on the basis of race, color, religion, national origin, or sex. Unions and employment agencies as well as employers were under its mandate.

Experience with pervasive job segregation patterns had demonstrated that case by case examination of complaints was not by itself sufficient to assure equal opportunity. In an innovative approach, the Federal Government began to use its procurement power to require affirmative action in a systemic attack on discrimination by Federal contractors. Executive Order 11246, issued by President Johnson in 1965 to counteract employment discrimination based on race, color, religion, or national origin, was amended in 1967 to address sex discrimination as well. By 1971, regulations under this Executive order required certain contractors

to conduct an in-depth analysis of all levels and job groups of the company work force to identify jobs where minorities and women had limited access--jobs for managers or skilled workers, for example. The contractors were required to remove or modify practices that maintained job segregation. Further they were to establish written goals and timetables for expanding job opportunities for groups previously denied opportunity, and set forth specific steps for recruiting, hiring, and training them.

In the initial development of the Equal Pay Act, Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, and the use of the Federal contracting power to further equal employment opportunity, the historic forces pressing for equity for minorities and women were sometimes separate, sometimes intertwined. Yet for both groups the early legal steps set forth strong policies and raised high expectations that were not necessarily met. Limitations in coverage, exemptions, and weak enforcement machinery meant that the initial policies formed somewhat of a patchwork, with many pieces missing. Federal agencies began to develop regulations and implementing procedures, while advocacy groups worked for amendments to plug loopholes and strengthen enforcement.

During the late 1960's and early 1970's the laws were tested in the courts. The Labor Department won a number of Equal Pay Act cases which established that jobs need only be substantially equal--not identical--to merit equal pay. The courts interpreted "wages" to include all employment-related payments, including overtime, uniforms, travel, and other fringe benefits. Title VII cases initiated by working women established certain principles: that virtually all jobs must be open to men and women alike; that women cannot be denied jobs because of the preferences of coworkers, clients, or customers or because the jobs involve working with, traveling with or supervising men; that the jobs involving late night work in isolated locations or heavy lifting or other strenuous activity cannot be denied on the basis of sex. Where State protective laws limited women's access to jobs, the restrictions were superseded by the Federal law. Where they offered a special benefit such as a State minimum wage (which could be higher than the Federal) or rest periods, the guidelines of the administering agency, the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC), generally required that the benefit be extended to men.

In 1972, amendments to Title VII brought educators and government employees under coverage and gave the EEOC the power to move beyond conciliation to action in the courts.

Late in the 1960's and throughout the 1970's additional laws and orders addressed discrimination in employment in specific areas such as education, the communications industry, and the armed services. Civil rights leaders within Congress regularly inserted a nondiscrimination clause in laws establishing programs expending Federal funds, whether directly or through grants, to States, cities, counties or such groups as community-based organizations or universities in the private sector. Many of these clauses were designed primarily to assure the benefits of Federal programs, such as housing, to all without discrimination, but many barred discrimination in employment in the program as well. The prohibited

bases of discrimination were usually race, color, religion, national origin, and sex, but some clauses included age, mental or physical handicap, and a few, marital status. By 1978 at least 65 Federal laws and orders affected equal employment opportunity.1/ Enforcement machinery was not always provided or funded by these laws. Nevertheless, multiple policy initiatives served to identify many forms of discrimination and provide remedies through voluntary action, the courts, and Federal purchasing power. Coordination of the policies that had evolved out of separate contexts and programs began through interagency cooperation on major cases before the problem was addressed comprehensively.

Enforcement Experience

Among the equal employment laws, the Equal Pay Act, Title VII of the Civil Rights Act, and the Executive order for Federal contractors remained basic and began to bring results. Large businesses gave more attention to training top managers in the requirements of equal opportunity law after the first time an equal pay case cost an employer nearly a million dollars. Remedies required for systemwide discrimination were even more costly.

In 1973 a consent decree with the largest private employer in the United States, the American Telephone and Telegraph Company, awarded about $12 million in one-time backpay and incentive payments to thousands of women and minorities who had been denied pay and promotion opportunities. Further, new pay and promotion policies brought about more than $40 million in pay adjustments of a continuing nature.2/

A consent decree with nine major steel companies and unions resulted in backpay for 46,000 minority and female steel workers, a total of $30.9 million. In June of 1978 the General Electric Company entered into a conciliation agreement estimated to cost $32 million, including training programs, an open promotion system, and bonuses of $500 to $800 to women and minorities who succeed in higher level jobs. The Chase Manhattan Bank also settled a class action suit brought against it by its female managerial employees by developing a $2 million program to identify and train women and minority employees with management potential. In most of these cases several Federal agencies worked together using the authority of different provisions.

While the large settlements are dramatic and make an impact, day-to-day enforcement remains crucial. In fiscal year 1978, $15.9 million was found due 18,376 employees under the Equal Pay Act. In slightly more than 15 years of enforcement of the Equal Pay Act, the Department of Labor found $174 million due more than 286,000 employees, not including the major consent decrees mentioned above.

Recent internal reorganization at the EEOC and new methods of processing charges have begun to reduce the backlog of Title VII cases for the first time. Face-to-face fact-finding conferences held in the EEOC office encourage early settlement rather than protracted processing and get much of the same information that previously took months to gather through formal written communications and onsite visits.

1/, 2/ See footnotes at end of part II.

The Chair of the EEOC recently reported to Congress that total monetary benefits obtained during the first 8 months of the field reorganization amounted to $11.43 million, which accrued to 3,643 individuals, while another 1,952 individuals received nonmonetary benefits such as training opportunities. Monetary benefits averaged $3,300 for newly filed charges and $3,000 for backlog charges. The average remedy rate through negotiation and conciliation for new charges is nearly 50 percent, as compared with 14 percent under the old system. Resolution of charges occurs on the average just over 2 months per charge.

Coordination

Policies that evolved out of separate contexts and equal employment opportunity programs sometimes resulted in inconsistent enforcement practices. President Carter took a major step toward assuring uniform standards and more effective enforcement in his Reorganization Plan No. 1 of 1978 and effectuating Executive orders. The EEOC has been assigned responsibility to lead and coordinate the Government's work to maximize effort, promote efficiency, and eliminate conflict, competition, duplication, and inconsistency among the operations, functions, and jurisdictions of the Federal departments and agencies.

In line with this responsibility, the EEOC has issued proposed procedural guidelines outlining the means by which other Federal agencies consult and coordinate with EEOC in the development of rules, regulations, policies, procedures, or orders dealing with equal employment opportunity.

Enforcement responsibilities for the Equal Pay Act and the Federal law prohibiting employment discrimination on the basis of age have been transferred from the Labor Department to the EEOC. However, the Labor Department's capacity to enforce the Executive order for Federal contractors has been strengthened by consolidation in the Department of the compliance activity which was formerly shared with numerous other agencies. Duplicative contract compliance offices in some cities have been closed, allowing for the opening of OFCCP offices in many more locations.

It should be noted that in the United States the executive and legislative branches have established a number of mechanisms to appraise Federal efforts to eliminate discrimination because of sex or certain other characteristics. These mechanisms include studies by the independent, bipartisan United States Commission on Civil Rights; oversight hearings by congressional committees; and assessments on the part of the General Accounting Office. Recently, the Office of Management and Budget (the principal coordinating agency in the executive branch) announced creation of a new unit to evaluate the Government's civil rights activities and facilitate the development of a consistent and coherent civil rights program Governmentwide.

Policy Clarification

Major policy questions have been clarified within the past 2 years by action of the Supreme Court and Congress. Of the greatest significance is the Supreme Court ruling on the validity of voluntary affirmative action programs established to offset deeply entrenched employment patterns excluding minorities and women from entry or promotion into whole categories of jobs. The courts had earlier confirmed the right of the Federal Government to require affirmative action of Federal contractors pursuant to its power to establish the terms of the contract.

However, private employers who are not Federal contractors are not required by Title VII to take affirmative action. Only after the EEOC has found reasonable cause to believe that an employer is discriminating does it seek a conciliation agreement, or if that fails, a court order requiring remedial affirmative steps. EEOC has, however, increased emphasis on systemic discrimination and has encouraged employers to examine their practices and voluntarily undertake affirmative action to remedy inequities.

When white males began to charge that such affirmative action was discriminatory against them, the EEOC issued guidelines describing the circumstances which would warrant carefully specified affirmative steps. In the case which brought the issue to the Supreme Court, the United Steelworkers of America and the Kaiser Aluminum and Chemical Corporation had voluntarily entered into a collective bargaining agreement that included a training plan to eliminate conspicuous racial imbalances in Kaiser's then almost exclusively white craft work forces. Rather than continuing its plan of hiring skilled outsiders, Kaiser agreed to train production workers to fill craft openings, reserving 50 percent of the trainee openings for blacks. A white worker who had not been selected for the training program filed suit, claiming that he had been discriminated against in favor of blacks with lower seniority.

The Supreme Court ruled that the nondiscrimination provisions of Title VII do not condemn all private, voluntary, race-conscious affirmative action plans. The Court found that the purposes of the Kaiser plan mirror the purposes of the act, designed to break down old patterns of segregation and open new employment opportunities to blacks in occupations which had traditionally been closed to them. The plan had offered half of the new training opportunities to white workers. Further the plan was a temporary measure, not intended to maintain a racial balance, but simply to eliminate a manifest racial imbalance.

Commenters on the Court's decision assume that the same principles would apply to an affirmative action plan designed for women under similar circumstances. However, challenges to affirmative action continue, and further delineation of the forms of affirmative action that are legal and workable will continue as agencies press for systemwide changes.

A second policy clarification came by congressional action in reaction to a Supreme Court decision on pregnancy. Federal administrative rulings and court decisions had said that an employer may not refuse to hire and may not discharge a woman simply because she is pregnant. The Supreme Court had said that State law could not deny unemployment compensation to pregnant women who are willing and able to work (and Congress had followed that decision by amending the Federal-State unemployment compensation system to require that States not deny benefits solely on the basis of pregnancy). Many were surprised and dismayed, however, when the Supreme Court ruled in 1976 that there was no sex discrimination in the exclusion of pregnancy disabilities by companies that provided employees with insurance for other disabilities.

In 1978 Congress amended Title VII specifically to ban discrimination based on pregnancy. The law does not require employers to institute new health or disability programs solely for women or pregnant women. It simply requires that women affected by pregnancy, childbirth or related medical conditions be treated the same for all employment-related purposes, including benefits, as other persons similar in their ability or inability to work.

In a third critical area, the Supreme Court ruled that women workers cannot be required to contribute a greater percentage of their salaries to a pension plan than men do in order to receive equal benefits. The argument had been presented that since as a class women live longer than men, women should pay more into the plan to cover the cost of expected longer years of life in which they would receive pensions. However, in 1978, in the case of City of Los Angeles v. Manhart the Supreme Court did not allow the use of group statistics to be applied to determining the benefits of individual women whose life expectancy could not be known.

Still another major policy clarification came through Federal administrative action. Although the Supreme Court had earlier struck down certain barriers to selection for a job by requiring that tests or other selection devices be clearly shown to be job related, different enforcement agencies interpreted the ruling with conflicting guidelines. In 1978, with its new role in coordinating policy development, the EEOC led the agencies in issuing uniform selection guidelines.

Emerging Policies

Among the important issues on which policy is still being clarified are "pay equity" or equal pay for work of comparable value, the problem of excluding women because of workplace health hazards, and sexual harassment in the workplace.

Pay equity

The need to rectify the low pay to women that is due to undervaluation of their work is beginning to receive greater visibility in the United States. The Equal Pay Act is directed at unequal pay only where women and men are performing substantially the same work in the same establishment. It does not address the more pervasive discrimination that affects women who perform work which, although different from that traditionally performed by men, is perceived to be of equal value. For instance, the question arises when skilled jobs performed by women involving quality control and the use of complex electronic equipment are paid below the common labor or janitorial rate for men.

The issue of job evaluation and salary administration plans of employers which are felt to discriminate against women is being addressed through lawsuits, proposed regulations, hearings and studies. The Office of Federal Contract Compliance Programs (OFCCP) of the U.S. Department of Labor, which enforces Executive Order 11246 prohibiting discrimination by Federal contractors, is taking the view that the Executive order does reach differences in pay for work of comparable value. Implementing regulations under the Executive order specifically prohibit an employer from making any distinctions based upon sex in employment opportunities, wages, hours, or any other conditions of employment. Proposed amendments to the regulations, published December 28, 1979, seek to clarify what constitutes wage discrimination. In the case of U.S. Department of Labor v. Kerr Glass, currently awaiting a decision by an Administrative Law Judge, OFCCP alleges that Kerr Glass is guilty of violating the Executive order's prohibition against sex discrimination by paying male carton stackers more than female inspector packers.

In September of 1979 the EEOC offered a brief as friend of the court in the appeal of a case initiated by the International Union of Electrical, Radio and Machine Workers, AFL-CIO, against the Westinghouse Corporation. The lower court had dismissed the case. At issue in the appeal is whether Title VII's prohibition against sex discrimination applies only to work which is considered "equal" under the Equal Pay Act, even if it can be shown that the compensation for the work performed by women was fixed at a lower level than would otherwise pertain merely because the jobs were filled by women. The argument of the brief is that the deliberate lowering of the compensation paid women because of their sex is a violation of Title VII whether or not it is also a violation of the Equal Pay Act. Should the appellate court agree that the case should be tried under Title VII, a landmark ruling may be in the making.

The EEOC held a public informational hearing on job segregation and wage discrimination in late April 1980 to determine whether the wage rates of jobs in which women and minorities have been historically segregated are likely to be depressed because those jobs are largely occupied by members of these groups.

Occupational safety and health

The second major unresolved policy area concerns workplace health hazards. The Government of the United States has a dual responsibility to assure safe and healthful workplaces for all workers--men and women--while at the same time assuring them equal employment opportunities.

Employers, however, concerned about liabilities that might accrue from damage suffered by a woman or a fetus because of a woman's exposure to toxic substances at the workplace, have traditionally excluded women from employment in areas involving such exposure, or have restricted women's employment opportunities in these areas.

More recently there are indications that substances which endanger a fetus or a woman's reproductive capacity also tend to pose dangers to men and to body systems other than the reproductive system in both men and women. Thus, to exclude women from employment in areas entailing exposure to toxic substances has an adverse effect on both men and women. The effect on women is to exclude them from employment opportunities often involving skilled jobs with high pay. The effect on men is to transfer to them the full risk of exposure to the toxic substances concerned.

In addressing these problems several Federal agencies have taken action: the Occupational Safety and Health Administration (OSHA), which enforces the 1970 Occupational Safety and Health Act, EEOC, and OFCCP.

In the Federal standard on lead, issued in November 1978, OSHA states that "to minimize the risk of genetic damage, menstrual disorders, interference with sexual function, lowered fertility, difficulties in conception, damage to the fetus during pregnancy, spontaneous miscarriage, stillbirth, toxic effects on the newborn, and problems with the healthy development of the newborn or developing child, blood lead levels should be kept below 30 micrograms per 100 grams of blood in both males and females exposed to lead who wish to plan pregnancies."

The Assistant Secretary for Occupational Safety and Health has written major corporate medical directors urging them to exercise the greatest possible restraint in adopting or expanding exclusionary practices, urging them to eliminate the hazard and not the worker, and asking their views and assistance on the problem. And on October 9, 1979, OSHA cited and proposed a $10,000 penalty against an employer--American Cyanamid--for adopting and implementing a policy which required women employees to be sterilized in order to be eligible to work in those areas of one of its plants where they would be exposed to lead. The agency's view is that the company could not seek to eliminate the hazard by forcing the women to choose between losing their jobs and undergoing sterilization.

On February 1, 1980, the EEOC and the Department of Labor published proposed interpretive guidelines on employment discrimination and reproductive hazards. The guidelines are intended to provide guidance to the employer/contractor in meeting its responsibilities under Title VII and E.O. 11246 to ensure nondiscrimination and to provide equal employment opportunity. These guidelines and the objectives of Title VII and E.O. 11246 are based on the assumption that laws prohibiting discrimination in employment are consistent with those laws designed to assure a workplace free of conditions that threaten the health or safety of employees. They clarify the fact that employers and Federal contractors cannot routinely exclude all women of childbearing capacity from exposure to alleged reproductive hazards. Sex-based exclusions are discriminatory on their face and will be closely scrutinized by enforcement agencies. Temporary exclusion of persons of one sex would be permitted only if their reproductive health were shown by reputable scientific evidence to be in danger of significant harm, and in such cases, research on the effects to the other sex would be required. The employer/contractor must investigate alternatives to excluding employees of one sex, particularly the alternative of providing a workplace safe and healthful for men and women.

The final shape of the policy in this area will be determined by the agencies after they receive and evaluate public comment on the proposed guidelines.

Sexual harassment

A further emerging issue is sexual harassment in the workplace. In April 1978, OFCCP regulations on affirmative action in the construction industry required that contractors maintain a working environment free of harassment, intimidation, and coercion. In December 1978, OFCCP proposed more specific guidelines on sexual advances and favors that would apply to Federal contractors in other industries as well.

In March 1980, EEOC published interim guidelines reaffirming its position that sexual harassment is an unlawful practice. The guidelines hold an employer, employment agency, joint apprenticeship committee, or labor organization accountable for its acts and those of its agents and supervisory employees. Urging prevention, the guidelines state that an employer should take all steps necessary to prevent sexual harassment from occurring, such as alerting employees to the fact that such harassment will not be tolerated and developing appropriate sanctions.

Regarding Federal employees, the Office of Personnel Management has instructed Federal agencies to supplement their affirmative action process with a plan indicating the steps the agency will take to prevent sexual harassment.

Congress has initiated hearings on the subject.

POLICIES AFFECTING THE OPPORTUNITIES AND ECONOMIC REWARDS FOR WOMEN WHO HAVE CHANGING AND MULTIPLE ROLES

Women's movement into the work force in large numbers seems certain to continue for years to come. Their enjoyment of full opportunity on the job, however, and their capacity to balance work and home responsibilities at different periods of their lives will depend on a wide range of policies in the society.

Primary among these are education and training policies and programs. Modifications in job-related benefits, tax systems, child care policies, and the availability of part-time and flexible work schedules will affect not only women but the ways in which parenting roles can be shared in families.

Employment Training Programs and Policies

During the 1960's and early 1970's the Department of Labor administered a wide variety of Federal training programs as part of an effort to meet employment demands and to fully utilize human resources. The emphasis in these programs was on giving training and necessary supportive services to disadvantaged persons and to groups with special employment problems, such as youth, older people, and members of minority groups.

Comprehensive Employment and Training Act of 1973 (CETA).--After more than a decade of centralized administration by the Federal Government, the bulk of the money for these employment and training programs was shifted by the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act of 1973 to State, city, and county government units called prime sponsors. State and local planning councils could use Federal funds granted under the act to continue the programs formerly administered by the Federal Government or to institute some new mix of programs and services appropriate to local needs. Some funds, however, were earmarked for Federal departments to conduct programs targeted at certain groups.

The primary purpose of CETA was to provide job training and employment opportunities for economically disadvantaged, unemployed and underemployed persons to enable them to secure self-sustaining, unsubsidized employment. More specifically, as originally enacted it authorized comprehensive local services, including training, employment, counseling, and testing; transitional public services in areas with high unemployment for an extended period; a few nationally sponsored and supervised training, employment, and job placement programs for special groups with particular labor market disadvantages; and the Job Corps, primarily a residential program of intensive education, training and counseling for disadvantaged youth. The basic law, which was amended several times to add programs, expired in 1978.

Women participated in the early CETA programs about in proportion to their participation in the general labor force. Women participants experienced a rate of earnings increase (97 percent) considerably greater than that of all participants (77 percent). Their hourly earnings, although lower than men's in almost every instance, were higher in comparison to men's than the ratio prevailing among the general labor force. Still women were substantially relegated to the traditional women's jobs in most programs.

By the time Congress had to consider reauthorizing the law in 1978, a number of exemplary projects had pointed the direction for policy changes. For example, the Minority Women Employment Program demonstration project showed dramatically successful results in placing unemployed and underemployed college-educated minority women in occupations such as chemist, accountant, management trainee, and engineer--with an average increase in earnings of about $2,000. A few demonstration projects tested methods of preparing women for placement in construction work and other skilled labor where women had limited access. Still other projects had been designed to help "displaced homemakers," women who had devoted years to their families and had particular problems when widowhood or divorce forced them to seek work (see section III).

The 1978 reauthorization amendments make CETA an even more effective tool for responding to the needs of the poor and the unemployed. Accordingly, it will address the needs of women more effectively, since women account for 66.9 percent of the poor and for 50.3 percent of the unemployed. The new CETA also helps women by requiring that services be provided equitably to the significant segments of the eligible population who suffer the most severe disadvantages in gaining employment. The law identifies those segments in terms of age, sex, race, and national origin. It also targets specific groups with special needs, such as the "displaced homemakers," welfare recipients, single parents, and women.

CETA reauthorization addresses specifically the elimination of sex stereotyping of jobs and the need for upward mobility. It speaks to the issue of supportive services such as day care, to part-time arrangements and flexible hours of work for both training and employment programs, and to overcoming artificial barriers to employment--limitations which are not directly related to an individual's fitness or ability to perform the duties required.

CETA also requires prime sponsors to train women for nontraditional jobs. New CETA regulations state that if an occupation has a representation of less than 25 percent male or female, it is to be treated as a sexually stereotyped occupation. And prime sponsors are to encourage and recruit males and females to enter those occupations where representation is lowest.

Prime sponsors are also required to see that women are represented on their planning councils and to work with community-based organizations, including women's groups, in developing and implementing employment and training programs.

Youth programs.--CETA provides a broad range of employment and training programs for disadvantaged youth to improve their future employability. Different sections of the act target different age groups, provide for part-time employment or a combination of employment and training for students attending secondary school, provide part-time or full-time summer employment, provide residential and nonresidential training opportunities in a variety of settings, and provide counseling, job sampling and vocational exploration and other forms of assistance in the school-to-work transition.

Authorized youth employment and training programs specifically may include programs to overcome sex stereotyping in job development and placement; child care and other necessary supportive services; and programs and outreach mechanisms to increase the labor force participation rate among minorities and women. The federally administered Young Adult Conservation Corps is open to

In school-to-work transition projects, teen women who are juniors and seniors in high school learn about nontraditional jobs through "hands-on" work experience.

youth of both sexes and of all social, economic, and racial classifications. The number of authorized residential and nonresidential centers operated by the Job Corps, another federally administered program, was doubled by the 1978 reauthorization, which also required immediate steps to achieve an enrollment of 50 percent women in the Corps.

In March of 1980 the President proposed even stronger legislation to provide programs that would move jobless youths step by step into long term productive careers. The bill would provide assessment of each youth to determine his or her degree of employability, and provide services to such youths in accordance with their assessed needs, and would require coordination with local educational agencies, the business community, labor organizations and community based organizations.

Apprenticeship.--Diverse as the CETA programs are, they do not cover all training in which the Department of Labor is involved. Apprenticeship is one of several ways used by women and men to enter the skilled trades, and it can be a good route out of poverty. One of the oldest methods of organized skill training in many countries, it is still one of the most effective. Both Federal and State agencies work closely with employers, labor unions, and vocational schools to improve the quality and availability of apprenticeship training.

In 1977 women were apprenticed in about 200 of the 450 occupations recognized as apprenticeable by the Department of Labor. This was a marked improvement from a few years earlier when women were apprenticed in only 70 out of the 400 recognized apprenticeable jobs. In the 53 trades in which 95 percent of all apprentices are employed, there were 4,819 women, accounting for 2 percent of the total 244,591 registered in June 1977. This is a significant increase from the number registered 4 years earlier. In 1973, 1,877 women constituted only 0.7 percent of the total 284,284 registered apprentices.

The basic equal employment opportunity laws discussed in an earlier section of this report apply to apprenticeship, although it is only since 1978 that affirmative action has been required for women in apprenticeship and construction. There is to be coordination of apprenticeship programs with CETA as well as with vocational education programs.

Apprenticeship training offers a particularly significant opportunity when it is made available to women offenders in Federal correctional facilities. Programs have been established at both of the Federal prisons for women, and women have been admitted to existing apprenticeship programs in the two Federal correctional facilities that house both men and women. It is hoped that these programs will be duplicated at the State level, thereby increasing the opportunities for women prisoners to get good jobs when they are released.

The Work Incentive Program (WIN).--The Work Incentive Program (WIN) is a 10-year-old interagency program designed to provide employment and social services to enable recipients of Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC) to move from welfare to work. All adult applicants for AFDC are required to register with WIN, with a few legal exceptions, and they are helped to develop and implement an employment plan. In 1978 about 9 out of 10 AFDC recipients and about 3 out of 4 WIN registrants were women. The average starting wage for women in WIN has consistently been lower than that for men ($4.01 for men and $2.97 for women in fiscal 1978).

A demonstration project, in progress, is designed to test whether long term, high-quality skill training leads to self-sufficiency for carefully screened women who have been receiving public assistance for their dependent children. The project involves an 18- to 21-month electronics technician training program that already has a 90 percent job placement record at an average starting salary of over $10,000. WIN applicants must meet the same entry requirements as regular enrollees. They are provided, however, with special counseling services, tutoring and "trouble shooting" services. Preliminary results indicate that attrition is no higher than that for regular enrollees and that welfare savings from the training will definitely exceed the cost for successful participants.

Educational Equity

Special training programs can make limited impact on employment opportunity for women apart from changes in the educational system of the country, from preschool to higher education and including vocational education, continuing education and counseling. Since education is the subject of another report for the Conference, this paper simply acknowledges the importance of recent policy development in education which moves toward greater equity. Many programs, especially those serving youth, the handicapped, the poor, and displaced homemakers, require close coordination between the Department of Labor and the newly established Departments of Education and of Health and Human Services (formerly parts of the Department of Health, Education and Welfare).

Child Care

Federal policies concerning child care take into account the needs of families at different income levels. As in other social welfare programs, there has been great expansion of Government spending for child care services since the early 1960's. New programs and increased spending have brought direct and indirect Federal expenditures to $2.5 billion in 1977, nearly double the estimated $1.3 billion in 1974. In 1977, about 10 million children received child care services supported directly or indirectly by Federal legislation.

The Federal Government directly funds several types of child care programs, including day care centers, educational programs for preschoolers, and food services for children in the child care centers and in licensed homes. Most of this direct support is designed to help low-income families. Direct subsidies of child care expenses are generally channeled toward two types of formal care: child care centers and licensed family day care homes. As a result, eligible families are largely encouraged to use care that, in the absence of subsidies, they would probably not be able to afford. In the United States 44 percent of the child care centers enroll children for whom they receive Government aid. Approximately 55 percent of children whose care is directly subsidized are enrolled in centers, 25 percent are in family or group homes, and the remainder are provided care in their own homes. In contrast, only 9 percent of families for whom child care is not directly subsidized use a child care center or nursery school; almost all of the remainder are cared for in a family- or home-based setting. Free child care is provided under WIN (Work Incentive Program) for disadvantaged people who are being trained or who work. In addition, all recipients of AFDC (Aid to Families with Dependent Children) are currently eligible for free child care or full reimbursement of work-related child care expenses; "work" is defined to include a vocational or training program.

The largest amount of this direct Federal support of child care is through social service grants to the States, with the States providing additional support through Federal Government departments.

The Federal Government indirectly supports child care in a number of ways. The major form of indirect subsidy is through the personal and corporate income tax systems. Tax credits, primarily used by those with middle and upper incomes, are provided for care of children up to age 15 to working parents of those going to school. Approximately 2.7 million families paid reduced taxes in 1977 because of child care expenditures for about 4 million children. As in Canada and Sweden, which also provide tax deductions for child care expenses, the United States imposes ceilings on the expenditures that qualify--a maximum of $400 for one child and $800 for two or more children. In 1978, legislation was approved allowing tax credits to be based on child care payments made by parents to relatives such as grandparents, as long as the relatives received less than half their incomes from the parents paying them for child care services. Tax credits are also available to employers under legislation permitting rapid amortization of capital expenditures for child care facilities. Business deductions for tax purposes are allowable for individuals providing child care in their own homes or in group homes.

Legislative and regulatory action is underway to improve the quality and availability of child care. Proposed legislation would affect child care by increasing the AFDC reimbursements, child care provided through job search assistance programs, and child care while in a subsidized job. Public hearings on proposed revised Federal standards for licensed child care centers and day care homes were completed in 1979. Final regulations were issued in March 1980.

Summary: Federal Funds for Child Care, Fiscal Year 1977

Direct Federal Subsidies	Number of Children Served	Estimated Cost (in millions)
Social Security Act Title XX	799,000	$809
Head Start	349,000	448
Child Care Food Service Program	580,000	120
ESEA Title I--compensatory preschool and kindergarten for disadvantaged children	367,000	136
AFDC work expense allowance	145,000	84
Work Incentive Program	85,000	57
Other direct programs	466,000	99
Indirect Federal Subsidies		
Child Care Tax Credit -- 20 percent of work-related expenses	4,000,000	500
Amortization of child care facilities	--	--

Other subsidies are available for child care through a number of Federal agencies, such as the Department of Housing and Urban Development, Community Services Administration, and the Bureau of Indian Affairs.

Social Security

The social security program in the United States is undergoing serious analysis and discussion in regard to a number of inequities. When it was developed over 40 years ago, it was designed to protect what was then the prevalent family structure, women as full-time homemakers and men as the sole sources of economic support. Over the years the program has undergone many changes and expansions--from originally providing only retirement benefits to providing benefits to surviving spouses and young children, unmarried children who are full-time students, persons divorced after years of marriage, workers and aged widows who are disabled, etc.

Higher divorce rates and the dramatic rise in married women's participation in the work force have altered the society for which social security was designed, leaving gaps and inequities for significant numbers of people. Moreover, there is strong pressure to recognize that women who choose to "work" in their homes are contributing to the family and society economically.

A major report to Congress recently identified ways in which the present benefit structure is outmoded and inequitable. A few examples are:

--women unfairly lose protection against disability if they leave the labor force for 5 years or more, for example to rear their children;

--women who take time out from their working careers to bear and raise children receive reduced social security protection when they reach retirement age;

--a couple where both spouses work often receives less from social security than a couple where just the husband works--even if total earnings by the two couples are identical.

The report suggests two basic options for updating social security. In both, the concept of dependence of one spouse on the wage earner is replaced by a concept that work in the home and work in the labor force contribute equally to the family during marriage. Under one option, the "earnings sharing approach," 50 percent of the combined annual earnings of a married couple would be credited to each spouse's earnings record. The other option would create a two-tier benefit system wherein the first tier would be a minimal benefit paid to everyone, regardless of earnings, at age 65 or upon disability, and the second would be an earnings-related benefit payable on the basis of earnings from employment covered under social security. Major features of the earnings sharing option would be incorporated in the provisions for tier II.

Private Pensions

Private pension problems are of special concern to women because women live longer and are poorer. Women can receive pensions in two ways--as workers and as survivors of their husbands. However, women seldom actually receive payments from private pension plans.

Women workers are less likely than men to be eligible for pension benefits in their own right because they are often in occupations that are not covered by pension plans and because, even when their jobs are covered, their greater job mobility causes them to forfeit credits toward vesting. When they do receive payments, their pensions are substantially smaller than those of men because women generally have earned less and worked fewer years.

Protection for older homemakers who are financially dependent upon the spouses is often lacking. Federal law requires pension plans that provide benefits in the form of an annuity to provide for a qualified joint and survivor annuity. However, the participant has the right to reject the joint and survivor annuity, without getting the consent of or even notifying the spouse. Thus a surviving spouse of a retiree, usually a wife, may expect a benefit that is not forthcoming. And if a participant dies even 1 day short of reaching retirement age, the survivor may be left without benefits.

Generally, divorced wives have no protection under private pension plans.

Another major problem for both women and men occurs in an inflationary period. Although some private pensions are adjusted periodically, few are indexed. As a result, inflation has seriously eroded the value of current pension payments. This is a more serious problem for women than for men since women generally live longer after retirement than men.

Recognition of these problems has spread in recent years. Much research is underway. The President's Commission on Pension Policy is studying the provision of retirement income in the United States and is expected to make a final report in 1981. Several bills to address these problems have been introduced in the Congress.

Unemployment Compensation

The Federal-State unemployment compensation program provides partial cash income replacement to qualified workers who lose their jobs. Both eligibility provisions and benefit levels vary greatly among the 50 States, the District of Columbia, and Puerto Rico. Maximum duration of benefits under State law ranges from 20 to 39 weeks, most frequently 26 weeks. During periods of high unemployment, extended benefits financed equally from Federal and State funds may become payable.

Women's access to protection offered by the program is the cause of some concern. Problems arise largely because female workers on average have different characteristics than male workers. Women are more likely than men to suffer unemployment. Because of family obligations, they move in and out of employment more frequently. They are also more likely to be employed part time. Finally, almost all domestic workers are women.

These characteristics interact with the unemployment compensation program in several ways. Part-time and low-paid workers whose weekly earnings are less than a State's minimum benefits may find themselves ineligible for any benefits. Part-time workers are disqualified in some States if they refuse to seek full-time work or are not available to work at any time of the day or any day of the week. In

many States, voluntary quits for reasons of family obligations cause disqualification. States are required to cover domestic service only if the employer pays at least $1,000 a quarter for such service. Although women can no longer be disqualified solely because of pregnancy, problems still arise when maternity leave is not provided and a pregnant woman leaves her job voluntarily. The 12 States that pay dependents' allowances do not distinguish between men and women in their laws; however, because men generally have higher earnings than their wives they are more likely to qualify for the extra benefit. Moreover, there have been numerous charges that administrative personnel generally do not challenge assertions by men that their spouses or children are dependent but require women to document their right to dependents' allowances. Finally, the Revenue Act of 1978 taxes a portion of unemployment benefits when total income exceeds certain levels. The result can be a particularly severe additional marriage penalty for couples in which both husband and wife are unemployed in the same year.

As women's labor force participation and attachment increase, the unemployment compensation program grows in importance to them. This program, and recommendations to correct the problems described above, are currently being reviewed by the National Commission on Unemployment Compensation. Many individuals believe that the system should be modified so that protection is provided in ways that reflect the characteristics of all parts of the work force.

Federal Income Tax

The Federal income tax laws also still reflect the traditional view of the American family where the husband worked and the wife stayed home. However, two-earner couples, which formerly were the exception, have now become common. When two earners marry, their combined Federal income tax usually increases over what they paid when single. This result has come to be called the "marriage tax penalty," although the tax policy was not designed to deter either marriage or the entrance of a second wage earner into the labor force. The "penalty" affects married couples in which both husband and wife work and the spouse with the lower income earns at least a fifth of the combined total income.

The "marriage penalty" places an unduly heavy tax burden on a married woman entering the active labor force (assuming her husband is also employed). According to the most recent estimates, approximately 19 million two-earner couples (38 million individuals) pay a "marriage penalty" to the United States Government. About 74 percent of those couples paying the "penalty" for being married have combined incomes below $20,000.

Several proposals are under consideration in the Congress aimed at eliminating the "marriage penalty" or, in the alternative, softening it. The three solutions considered most viable are (1) optional individual filing, (2) a deduction related to the second earner's income, and (3) a tax credit related to the second earner's income.

Women Business Owners

Recognizing the vital role women business owners play in the American economy and the obstacles they must overcome to be successful, President Carter created an Interagency Task Force on Women Business Owners in August 1977 to focus specifically on women entrepreneurs. The Task Force reported, among other things, that women-owned businesses are still hampered in the Federal procurement process by a lack of information and by biases in the procurement system. Women face many barriers in legislation, regulations, capital formation, credit, and Federal loans and grants.

In July 1978 the President created the Interagency Committee on Women's Business Enterprise to implement the Task Force's recommendations. They have worked with Government agencies to improve services to women business owners through expanded Federal procurement, improved data collection, nonsexist education, and more loan opportunities.

In May 1979 the President issued Executive Order 12138 establishing a National Policy on Women's Business Enterprise. The order directs each department and agency of the executive branch to:

--Take appropriate affirmative action to facilitate, preserve, and strengthen women's business enterprise. Possible actions include setting goals for purchase from women-owned firms and for amounts of direct loans or loan guarantees to them.

--Require recipients of Federal financial assistance to take appropriate affirmative action to facilitate, preserve, and strengthen women's business enterprise.

It further directs the Interagency Committee to promote, coordinate, and monitor the order, and design a comprehensive and innovative plan for a joint Federal and private sector effort to develop women's business enterprise.

Alternative Work Patterns

The availability of part-time work and more flexible work schedules has a lot to do with the employability of a homemaker and with the quality of life of a woman or man who combines worklife with other major responsibilities in the family or the community.

There is increasing interest in part-time work by many persons, including students, handicapped workers, and persons nearing retirement. In both the public and private sectors, part-time employment is usually concentrated in certain jobs, and, in the private sector, part-time workers generally receive fewer fringe benefits than full-time workers. Because currently most part-time workers are women, women particularly are seeking to increase part-time employment opportunities in a greater variety of jobs, including professional and administrative jobs, and to improve fringe benefits for part-time workers.

Congress enacted in 1978 two laws to further experimentation with flexible work hours and to create more part-time job opportunities in Federal Government. Part-time work has long been permitted in Federal employment, with benefits prorated. The legislation removed a deterrent to the use of part-time staff by changing a personnel ceiling system that had counted a part-time person the same as a full-time person against an agency's overall limitation on personnel. As of October 1, 1980, part-time workers will be prorated against the ceiling in accordance with hours worked.

The flextime legislation removes obstacles to varying the 8-hour day, and requires a three-year study to determine the effects on Government operations, service to the public, use of mass transit facilities, energy consumption, employment opportunities, and the impact on individuals and families.

A 1976-77 survey by the National Council for Alternative Work Patterns, Inc., of States offering alternative work schedules revealed a dozen States with flexible work hours experience.

Private industry is also experimenting with these programs. According to a recent survey by the American Management Association, 13 percent of all private employers with more than 50 workers offer flexible work schedules.

Coordination

Coordinated enforcement of equal employment opportunity laws was stated as a goal in an earlier section of this report. Equally important is coordination of planning between various Federal agencies for education and training, social security and pensions, child care and related matters. The Departments of Labor and of Health, Education, and Welfare have worked together over the years in relation to employment and training policies. Recent legislation requires particularly close coordination of vocational education programs with those administered under the CETA programs mentioned above.

The Equal Rights Amendment

Underlying the multiplicity of policies and programs that have developed to open opportunities in the workplace and society to women and men equally is the major national effort to ensure women the constitutional guarantee of equal treatment under the laws--namely ratification of the Equal Rights Amendment (ERA). Passed by Congress early in the decade and ratified by 35 States, the ERA must be ratified by three more to become law. Congress has extended the deadline for ratification from March 1979 to June 1982.

Accompanying the effort for actual ratification of the ERA have been actions by Congress and State legislatures to change discriminatory laws. Some States have undertaken substantial review and modification of their codes. Two Presidents have authorized a Government-wide review of all laws in the U.S. Code and of all regulations with the purpose of removing overt discrimination or policies that have an adverse impact on one sex.

FOOTNOTES

1/ A staff study issued by the General Accounting Office in 1978 identified 78 Federal laws and orders promoting nondiscrimination in employment, public services, housing, education, credit, public accommodations, voting and jury service, criminal and general civil remedy programs.

2/ From Amended Final Report of the Consent Decree, February 2, 1979. Detailed evidence that inroads have been made in altering job segregration was included as follows:

"Since the Decree was entered, the total number of employees within the Bell System has increased from 793,715 to 799,785: a percentage increase of 0.8 percent. While total employment remained relatively stable, significant progress was made for women in positions where they had been excluded or underutilized. Women now comprise 28.6 percent of the management employees (Affirmative Action Job Classifications 1, 2, 3), as compared with 22.4 percent in 1973. More

specifically in top level management (AAJC 1) women increased from 2.1 percent to 7.8 percent, in mid-level management (AAJC 2) they increased from 11.2 percent to 21.1 percent, and in entry level management the increase was from 30.8 percent to 35.2 percent. In craft positions (AAJC's 6, 7, 9, 10) women now represent 9.5 percent of these employees, as compared to 2.8 percent when the Decree was entered. The progress is perhaps more apparent when viewing inside craft positions and outside craft positions separately. Between 1972 and 1978 women in outside craft positions (AAJC's 6, 9) went from 0.2 percent to 3.9 percent. In inside craft positions (AAJC's 7, 10) women went from 6.5 percent to 17.2 percent.

In the clerical (AAJC's 11, 12, 13) and operator (AAJC 14) positions, men made substantial gains. Between December 31, 1972, and September 30, 1978, men increased in the clerical positions from 4.1 percent to 11.0 percent; and in the operator position from 1.4 to 7.5 percent.

Employment of blacks on a system-wide basis went from 10.6 percent to 12.0 percent under the Decree. In management (AAJC's 1, 2, 3) blacks increased from 2.3 percent to 5.5 percent. They increased from .5 percent to 1.5 percent in AAJC 1, from 1.0 percent to 3.6 percent in AAJC 2, and from 3.2 percent to 7.0 percent in AAJC 3. Although blacks declined in their representation in semi-skilled crafts (AAJC's 9, 10, including a redistribution of AAJC 8) from 10.4 percent to 9.7 percent, their representation in the skilled craft positions (AAJC's 6, 7) increased from 3.2 percent to 5.4 percent. Similarly, while in the entry level clerical positions (AAJC 13) and operator positions (AAJC 14) blacks declined from 20.0 percent to 19.8 percent, in skilled and semi-skilled clerical positions (AAJC's 11, 12) they increased from 12.7 percent to 17.8 percent.

Overall Hispanic employment increased from 2.5 percent to 3.9 percent. Hispanic representation in management increased from 0.7 percent to 2.1 percent, as Hispanic representation in AAJC 1 went from 0.1 percent to 0.6 percent, from 0.4 percent to 1.3 percent in AAJC 2, and from 1.0 percent to 2.7 percent in AAJC 3. Hispanics experienced an increase in semi-skilled crafts (AAJC's 9, 10) from 3.6 percent to 4.3 percent, and a more significant increase in skilled crafts (AAJC's 6, 7) from 1.6 percent to 3.2 percent. Similarly, Hispanics showed an increase in the operator and entry level clerical positions (AAJC's 13 and 14) from 3.6 percent to 5.2 percent and a more substantial increase in the skilled and semi-skilled clerical positions (AAJC's 11 and 12) from 2.9 percent to 5.2 percent."

Women are moving into less traditional jobs in the transportation and construction industries.

A pneumatic roller operator--one of many jobs in construction now open to women.

III. NONGOVERNMENTAL ORGANIZATIONS AND THE WORLD PLAN OF ACTION: INITIATIVES WORKING TOWARD THE GOALS

A very large number of membership organizations are working in the United States to advance the economic status of women. Some of these are national associations, founded many years ago, that have redirected their efforts toward newly perceived or emerging problems. Others are of comparatively recent origin, such as women's "caucuses" formed by the female members of professional organizations; women's task forces in law schools; citywide groups of women in certain industries, for example, broadcasting; and advocates for special groups of women such as those who are disabled, those who need child care facilities, and those who are seeking to enter the labor force after their children are grown or because their marriage has terminated.

Although these organizations have individually made significant contributions to the welfare of women, their efforts have been greatly enhanced by the practice of "networking." Networking can be merely seeking out and forming alliances with similar groups in other cities, as has occurred with respect to clerical workers. It can also be a major cooperative effort of many types of "umbrella" organizations, as in the campaign of women's, civil rights, religious, and union groups that resulted in passage of legislation to protect the rights of pregnant workers.

Formulation of the World Plan and of our own National Plan of Action provided a unifying focus for organizations striving to improve conditions for women in this country. The Women's Equity Action League Educational and Legal Defense Fund (WEAL Fund) printed a summary of the World Plan in English, French, and Spanish and disseminated it to political leaders and policymakers and working groups around the world. The Women's Action Alliance, which was begun in 1971 as a national clearinghouse on women's programs and issues, and which provides a network of communication for cooperative action to end sexism and sex discrimination, has established a project to coordinate the efforts of national women's organizations to achieve the goals of the U.S. National Women's Agenda.

It would be impossible to list in this report all the nongovernmental organizations working actively in behalf of women workers. The number is constantly growing. Moreover, the names in themselves are sometimes misleading as to scope of interest (as evidenced, for example, in the active participation in the national debate on social security reform by such organizations as the National Women's Political Caucus, American Association of University Women, League of Women Voters Education Fund, etc.). Therefore, we are simply giving some indication of initiatives undertaken by nongovernmental organizations toward attaining changes called for in the World Plan.

It should be noted that in many instances there is close collaboration between government agencies, philanthropic foundations, and nongovernmental organizations toward achieving improvements for women. Not only is there recognition of the important role that nongovernmental organizations play in monitoring government employment-related programs that affect women but there is an active effort on the part of the Women's Bureau of the U.S. Department of Labor to make sure that such organizations are apprised of and have a chance to comment on proposed programs and regulations. Employment-related issues are prominent among the concerns of the President's Advisory Committee for Women and of the status of women commissions operating under statutory or executive authority in many States and local jurisdictions.

Efforts To Secure and Protect Legal Rights of Women Workers

Nongovernmental organizations such as the Legal Defense and Education Fund of the National Organization for Women (NOW), the Women's Legal Defense Fund in Washington, D.C., and women's law centers or caucuses in major cities often file complaints and undertake litigation in behalf of victims of sex discrimination in employment.

One of the most dramatic examples of the effectiveness of nongovernmental organizations in achieving gains for women workers resulted from a decision by the U.S. Supreme Court adverse to women workers. The court ruled that a major employer did not violate the Federal law prohibiting sex discrimination in employment when it refused to pay normal disability benefits to pregnant employees. Led by the female associate general counsel of the union to which the employees belonged and a staff attorney from the American Civil Liberties Union, a coalition emerged, calling itself Campaign to End Discrimination Against Pregnant Workers. The Campaign successfully undertook to convince Congress to amend the law to make clear that discrimination on the basis of pregnancy, childbirth or related medical conditions constitutes unlawful sex discrimination. Among the members of the ad hoc group were several other individual unions and civil rights agencies, the national AFL-CIO, the Leadership Conference on Civil Rights, American Nurses Association, National Organization for Women, and the National Board of the Young Women's Christian Association (YWCA).

The Women's Rights Project was started in 1972 by the Center for Law and Social Policy to fight sex discrimination by providing lawyers for cases involving women's issues. Supported by foundation grants, the Project provides legal representation for a number of women's advocacy organizations. Among its activities, the Project has sued the Federal Government to strengthen enforcement of civil rights laws and has testified before congressional committees.

The WEAL Fund is a nonprofit tax-exempt organization that seeks to secure legal and economic rights for women by monitoring the implementation and enforcement of equal opportunity laws, by conducting research and publishing reports, by supporting lawsuits that raise issues of national significance, and by training interns to have an impact on Federal policies.

Training and Employment Programs To Integrate Women in the Work Force

Several nongovernmental organizations have as their principal focus widening the job options and promotional opportunities of women. Such organizations have provided much of the impetus for establishing goals and timetables for women in federally financed construction and in apprenticeships in the skilled trades. They have also actively participated in experimental or ongoing projects--usually requiring some degree of governmental support to move women into better paying nontraditional jobs.

The National Congress of Neighborhood Women, Inc. (NCNW), which began in the early 1970's as a small self-help group focused on the needs of poor women in two ethnically diverse communities in Brooklyn, N.Y., has concentrated on occupational skills development, developing support systems, consumer education and tutoring of basic skills. NCNW is also the umbrella agency for Project Open

Doors, and administers a $2.6 million annual grant for this first federally funded citywide coalition of women's groups to provide services under the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act, Title VI. Project Open Doors was created by women representing 32 different organizations and the NCNW Board and staff members. These women gave technical assistance to coalition members in program planning and organizational development, donating thousands of hours of volunteer labor during the 15 months before the contract was approved by the New York City Board of Estimate in 1978. Project Open Doors also operates a job development program which helps women obtain employment in a variety of fields, including administration, economic development, counseling, and clerical and skilled trades.

The Human Resources Development Institute (HRDI), the employment and training arm of the AFL-CIO, has offices in 59 major U.S. cities. In Arizona HRDI has been instrumental in the design and funding of preapprenticeship training to prepare females to meet entry-level requirements for specific crafts. Special emphasis is placed on physical conditioning, which is recognized in the construction industry as far more important in the daily practice of the craft than physical strength. Current and projected training will be in bricklaying, roofing, carpentry and electrical work.

The National Council of Negro Women opened a Women's Center for Education and Career Advancement in 1976 to help minority women gain the knowledge and skill they need to move into better jobs. Open to all, the Center attracts yearly some 4,000 women and men of all races and backgrounds. The greatest users of the center continue to be black women between 25 and 35 years of age who work in white-collar jobs in business and public agencies. Unemployed women have their own workshop, focused on job-finding, resume writing and interview techniques.

Washington Opportunities for Women was founded to provide assessment and placement of women with backgrounds in volunteer work. Many of these women had developed strong managerial skills, which were transferable to paying jobs. In time the organization's focus shifted toward development of training programs for low-income women and it changed its name to Wider Opportunities for Women. In 1979 WOW organized a network conference bringing together more than 100 project directors, government officials, civil rights groups and trainers of programs for women in construction.

Among these was the Women in Construction Project, Boston, a grassroots organization funded originally through vocational educational programs for low-income CETA-eligible women seeking preapprenticeship skills training and job placement. The women placed by WICP received salaries three or four times higher than those offered at their last jobs. WICP has an intensive training program through cooperative arrangements with several funding authorities, whereby training is being provided to 240 women at four training sites during two 18-week training cycles, and has the support of both the construction industry and organized labor.

Better Jobs for Women (BJW) began as an outreach program to recruit, counsel, tutor and place women in skilled trade apprenticeship jobs or other unsubsidized blue-collar occupations. Founded in 1971 by the Denver (Colorado) YWCA and the regional office of the U.S. Labor Department's Bureau of Apprenticeship and Training, BJW recruits minorities, female heads of households, and disadvantaged women with a demonstrated interest in nontraditional work. Components of the program include coordination with management and labor, local and State employment services and apprenticeship council; assistance with implementation of equal employment opportunity regulations; and working with networks of various social service agencies, community organizations and community colleges to recruit motivated women into the program.

Features of the BJW process stress orientation, intake, prevocational counseling, supportive services and referral mechanisms, job development, placement, training and followup activities which include a peer group support system of meetings held informally on a monthly basis in participants' homes. There is no cost to employers or participants of the BJW program.

The Center for Human Services, located in Washington, D.C., developed an outreach project with the Graphic Arts International Union and a printing union to enable local union committees in two cities to identify women wishing to obtain entry into apprenticeship training and advanced career preparation.

Women in Apprenticeship, San Francisco, is providing counseling and tutoring support to women offenders in a nearby Federal correctional facility who are participating in apprenticeship programs. This group, although a funded program, voluntarily became interested in assisting the women prisoners preparing to train in stationary engineering, which includes a variety of occupations related to operation and maintenance of equipment used to supply light, heat, waste disposal and other elements of environmental engineering.

The National Commission on Working Women (NCWW) was created in 1977 as a nongovernmental action-oriented group of people focusing on the 80 percent of women in the labor force who hold lower paying blue- and pink-collar jobs in clerical and service occupations, retail sales, factories and plants. In addition to a number of other projects, NCWW has sponsored a career counseling project in cooperation with six working women's organizations to provide consultations and seminars for clerical workers with emphasis on the banking, insurance and publishing industries.

In six States, commissions on the status of women cosponsored conferences with the Women's Bureau on the employment problems and needs of women offenders. Task forces under the auspices of commissions emerged from these consultations and continue to meet on a regular basis to work on a plan of action to help offenders improve their employability.

Working Women, National Association of Office Workers, Cleveland, Ohio, was started in 1977 to help establish organizations to upgrade the status of working women and fight discrimination on the job. Its services include technical assistance to women trying to start activist organizations for officeworkers in their own cities; its support comes from several sponsoring organizations and contributions.

Few women are in coal mining, but they now hold jobs above and below ground, as is shown by this operator of a shuttle car which carries coal from the "continuous miner" to the conveyor belt which carries coal out of the mine.

Rural women

Several projects have begun to address the employment needs of rural women, whose conditions are exacerbated by their isolation, lack of transportation, and low educational attainment. Many reside in areas of high unemployment, have few marketable skills and are caught in a cycle of family poverty.

The Appalachian Women's Employment Information Project was initiated by a coalition of women who attended Women's Bureau consultations on low-income women. The American Friends Service Committee became grantee for the project, which offers women in the mountainous rural areas of three States employment information and referral services.

The Southeast Women's Employment Coalition is a regional grassroots network and advocacy organization formed in 1979 by 12 women's employment programs to address women's employment issues characteristic of Appalachian and rural regions. It is monitoring Federal highway construction contracts to assure that women receive their fair share of training and jobs.

The National Council of Negro Women developed a recruitment, counseling and referral program for rural black women in two counties in the State of Mississippi. Called the Women's Opportunity Program, it works with the Federal waterway construction project to recruit women workers and seeks to develop nontraditional jobs.

The Coal Employment Project in five Tennessee counties emerged from a study to determine the extent to which women were interested in coal mining and employers were willing to hire them. Based on the findings, the Coal Employment Project was funded (in part by the Women's Bureau) and developed an advocacy, training, and placement network which has significantly increased the number of women coal miners. It has developed a training manual on safety and health employment rights to meet the special needs of women entering the coal industry.

Rural American Women, Inc. was founded in 1977 as a nonprofit organization of and by rural women to develop priorities for rural women's issues in the Congress, governmental departments, foundations and private industry. It conducts leadership training conferences and provides a forum for exchange.

Ethnic groups

In addition to nongovernmental organizations whose projects relate to low-income women in general or to women in rural areas, there are groups whose focus is on ethnic groups of women.

Consultations on the employment trends and needs of Asian and Pacific American Women were planned by local coordinators and advisory committees in six cities in cooperation with the Women's Bureau. The objectives were to learn more about employment trends among Asian-Pacific women, especially the new immigrant women of these groups, to discover the gaps in services, to provide an opportunity for these groups to meet with local government resource people, and to coalesce for local action. Seattle, Los Angeles, San Francisco, Honolulu, Chicago and New York--gateway cities for Pacific-basin people--are the sites of the 1980 conferences.

In San Antonio, Texas, the National Low-Income Women's Employment Project serves Hispanic women. It provides recruitment, referral, supportive services and placement in better job opportunities. Some women have been placed in construction jobs; some, in other types of jobs which the project develops paying more than the minimum wage. Pre-job orientation to the world of work is a major component of this group's activity.

Displaced homemakers

Still another group of women who have been targeted for special training and employment assistance are those who, after years of devoting themselves to family responsibilities, are suddenly faced with the necessity of making a living for themselves (and their children) because their marriage is dissolved by divorce or the death of their husband, or their children no longer qualify for public assistance. Usually these women are too young for social security but have few skills for paid jobs.

Starting with a mutual help group called Jobs for Older Women Action Project in Oakland, California, only a few years ago, grassroots advocacy for these so-called "displaced homemakers" has changed public policy. A public interest lawyer helped write model state and national legislation to provide specific programs to assist them to move from dependency to self-sufficiency. Recognizing the need for national advocacy for enactment of this legislation, the group formed the Alliance for Displaced Homemakers. By the end of 1978, 28 states had passed some form of displaced homemaker legislation, and the term had been incorporated into the terminology of the Department of Labor, the Department of HEW and the Administration on Aging. That year, the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act included special programs for displaced homemakers in its reauthorization act.

In order to continue the nongovernmental initiative and to insure that these new programs are as effective as possible, a Displaced Homemakers Network, Inc. was organized, representing all the newly emerging programs for this constituency. The Displaced Homemakers Network sponsored a national training conference in January 1980. Workshops included advocacy politics and grassroots organizing, network structures and coordinating roles, job creation, data collection and funding.

There are several hundred programs operated by women's groups and others in connection with resource centers, educational institutions and employment agencies to prepare the displaced homemaker for work. A few examples are:

--Women in Transition, Philadelphia, Pa., provides a counseling service under a CETA grant for displaced homemakers, including instruction in survival skills and a referral service.

--Baltimore New Directions for Women, Inc. (BNDW) since 1972 had served as a resource center by offering free counseling for the unemployed and economically disadvantaged to help the women prepare for the labor market. Under contract to BNDW, the Center for Displaced Homemakers opened in 1976 specifically as a job readiness, peer support and training facility for those qualifying as displaced homemakers who are forced to enter or reenter the job market.

--In New York City, a consortium of programs sponsored by several organizations serves displaced homemakers of various ethnic backgrounds. The organizations include the YWCA, the National Council of Negro Women, Agudath Israel and the Sisters of the Good Shepherd.

Special Efforts To Eliminate Obstacles to Women's Employment

Recognized disincentives to women's employment include lack of child care and a scarcity of jobs with working hours suitable for women who have family responsibilities, as well as the discouraging effect of low pay in many jobs traditionally held by women even though such jobs require more skill than higher paying jobs traditionally held by men. Nongovernmental organizations are working to eliminate each of these obstacles.

Child care

Working mothers and their children have been a matter of continuing concern among women's organizations in the United States.

In 1978 the National Commission on Working Women organized a series of regional dialogs that elicited women's concerns about child care. Seeing the relationship between productivity and child care, NCWW joined forces with the National Manpower Institute and the Women's Bureau in 1979 to hold a conference on community solutions to the problem.

NCWW also conducted a national survey of working women with the cooperation of national magazines and union publications which brought 150,000 responses, highlighting among others the child care problems that 60 percent of women seeking employment anticipated. At the community solutions conference, persons representing every child care arrangement sponsor, funder, and supporter were brought together with child care providers, brokers serving as catalysts in the community, business, labor, representatives of governmental agencies, congressional committees, foundations, media, advocacy organizations, consultation and research firms and universities. Across the country, it was found, people are looking to their own communities to provide solutions; unique and exciting successes were being designed in rural, urban and surburban settings.

Since 1978, the Amalgamated Clothing and Textile Workers Union has operated six centers, with 45 manufacturers contributing 2 percent of their gross payroll to the union's Health and Welfare Fund. Centers have opened their doors to community residents, who are charged twice the cost paid by union members.

The Brookline, Massachusetts, Extended Day Program is a parent-designed and operated nonprofit after-school program in eight elementary schools, with all administration the responsibility of the parent board and school principal. This includes staff hiring, fiscal policy, fundraising and program content.

FOCAL (Federation of Community-Controlled Centers of Alabama) began in 1972 as a group of providers, parents and concerned citizens in Selma, Alabama, to seek cooperation and resources from the State for child care services. Today it is a statewide organization of 85 centers, 160 family day care homes, and over 700

individual members that touches the lives of nearly 5,500 children. FOCAL invests its energy in three components: training, technical assistance and advocacy. Its strength emanates from its role as a voice for the people needing and providing child care, serving as an advocate for poor people in their interaction with public agencies, providing an incentive for the people of Alabama to speak out and take advantage of the community resources available to them. Self-initiated solutions to the issues have fostered a sense of pride and self-worth among the individuals and families concerned about child care.

Texas Child Care '76, an outgrowth of the Bicentennial effort, focuses noontime seminars at business sites in 20 Texas communities. Originally developed in cooperation with the State Department of Public Welfare and cosponsored by local volunteer groups providing services to children and families, its cooperating businesses now include utility and life insurance companies, department stores, manufacturers and hospitals. Some parents have formed self-help groups as a result of their experiences in the noontime seminars. Texas '76 trains community volunteers to serve as facilitators, and strives to stimulate corporate interest in the problems faced by children and families.

Child Care Switchboard, San Francisco, is a unique information and referral agency developed by grassroots groups of women. Since 1973, it has provided free services that can help meet parents' needs for child care services. It offers a single parent resource center, a toy lending library, a family day care unit, forums, a bimonthly advocacy newsletter, and political action. The Switchboard provided impetus for the creation of 34 information and referral centers now operating in the State of California, within an informal network, and collectively providing documentation of unmet child care needs throughout the State.

The Children's Foundation is an organization using the Government child care food programs as an organizing handle for developing quality programs in low-income southern and rural communities. Concentrating its lobbying efforts on family day care, it helped get legislation passed enabling family day care homes to participate in the U.S. Department of Agriculture food program through nonprofit association sponsors. With funds obtained from a private foundation, CF has encouraged the development of local associations to serve as sponsors for the in-home care providers who otherwise would be ineligible and has established local networks to help with outreach, alerting family day care providers to the availability of food subsidies.

Of the nine all-day child care centers in Federal buildings, several were employee instigated. All have become independent employee controlled and operated under a parent-led board of directors, with the agency continuing as a partner to provide space and maintenance without charge. A national training conference was sponsored in 1979 by the Government Child Care Center Corporation in Boston, the only such program outside the Washington, D.C., complex, at which 100 Federal Women's Program agency coordinators and State and local government representatives from all over the country discussed methods of developing similar child care facilities and programs.

Child care programs provide learning experiences as well as supervised care for the children of working parents.

Alternative work patterns: part-time, flextime

The World Plan of Action specifically calls for special attention to the need for multilateral approaches to facilitate the combination of family and work responsibilities, with the particular injunction that the economic and social rights of part-time workers be fully protected. Sparked by increasing interest in part-time work by many persons, and concern that in the private sector part-time workers generally receive fewer fringe benefits than full-time workers, a number of union and advocacy organizations have undertaken various activities on behalf of the extension of alternative work patterns.

Focus on Part-Time Careers (FOCUS) in Seattle, Washington, has helped more than 5,000 area residents, primarily reentry women, displaced homemakers, mothers wanting part-time work, workers nearing retirement, and persons seeking job sharing.

New Ways to Work (NWW) is a San Francisco, California, based nonprofit work resource center which promotes the concept of job sharing. The hub of this center is the Shared Jobs Project, developed in 1975 to provide more opportunity for career-oriented part-time work for people trying to balance work responsibilities with the rest of their lives--family, school, community work, etc. For jobseekers, workshops are offered on principles of job sharing, on skill development such as joint resume writing and team interviewing, and on the techniques of effective performance in shared jobs. For employers, conferences and referrals are provided. Services of the project center on client training in how to negotiate a shared job, employer outreach and community education around the issues involved.

In 1979, with funding from a consortium of foundations, NWW began to design a program which will expand the scope of the Shared Jobs Project, to encourage the growth of regional resource centers as a means of developing acceptance of job sharing and other worktime options on a national scale. A 2-day meeting produced the groundwork for the center network and an array of regional programs to test the applicability of job sharing under a variety of circumstances.

The National Council for Alternative Work Patterns, Inc. (NCAWP) is a nonprofit resource organization and membership coalition formed to provide to business, government, labor and other groups information on flexible ways of work scheduling and improvement of the quality of worklife through adoption of alternative work schedules. The major emphasis is on flextime, compressed workweek, part time, job sharing and reduced workweeks and workyears. The Council now has a grant to study worksharing programs in the United States, broadly defined as reduced workhour programs which may lower unemployment by spreading work among a greater number of persons. Its Alternative Work Schedule Directory contains information on public and private organizations which have implemented these patterns.

CATALYST, a New York organization founded in 1962 by five college presidents, maintains a central clearinghouse library addressing all aspects of women's work and careers. Its network comprises 150 local resource centers which provide job referral and placement services, with CATALYST providing ongoing consultation. Its Corporate Board Resource assists corporations in finding qualified

women to serve on their boards. Among special concerns are upward mobility, part-time employment and other flexible working patterns, regarding which it has developed a number of publications and statements.

Pay equity

The issue of pay equity, or equal pay for work of comparable value, has elicited a national conference, studies and lawsuits on the part of nongovernment organizations and unions.

Complaints and lawsuits charging that unequal pay for work of comparable value is illegal sex discrimination have been filed by clerical workers, nurses, librarians, and female jailkeepers in various parts of the country.

With respect to union activity on this issue, the International Union of Electrical, Radio and Machine Workers, AFL-CIO (IUE), has been in the forefront, and other unions are becoming increasingly involved. One IUE lawsuit has been settled with 13 formerly all-female job classifications being increased a total of 25 labor grades and incumbents in those classifications in the last 5½ years receiving retroactive payments of 50 percent of the difference between the former rate and the rate under the increase.

The United Electrical, Radio and Machine Workers of America seeks to develop rank-and-file support in collective bargaining and through the grievance procedure for the principle of "no rate below common labor," that is, no job classifications rated lower than the lowest rated job filled predominantly by men. The union has maintained the right to strike over grievances in its major contracts and has a record of many union-authorized strikes over women's wage rate issues.

The Communications Workers of America, during 1977 negotiations, emphasized the need to upgrade jobs in the telephone industry historically considered "female jobs."

Several other national unions have formally supported the concept of equal pay for work of comparable value. The AFL-CIO Convention in November 1979 passed a resolution supporting the principle.

In October 1979, a conference was held in Washington, D.C., to explore the historical, legal and economic bases of the serious inequities in pay between women and men in the present-day economy. The steering committee of this Conference on Pay Equity was composed of 11 organizations, including Antioch School of Law, Women's Rights Law Clinic; the Business and Professional Women's Foundation; the Coalition of Labor Union Women; the National Commission on Working Women; the National Organization for Women, Labor Committee; and the Women's Legal Defense Fund. The 150 conferees from all over the country represented a broad spectrum of interests and experience, including blue-collar, pink-collar and white-collar workers; union members; government policymakers; women's movement activists; and lawyers representing plaintiffs in employment discrimination cases.

The conference steering committee continues to meet to produce a manual and investigate structures to transform itself into a larger coalition in the interest of bringing about equal pay for work of comparable value for women and for minorities.

Increasing the Participation of Women in Trade Unions

The problems of women workers have led to a variety of other activities by trade unions, many of which have established women's divisions or sections on special issues. Examples of constructive approaches follow.

In 1974 the Coalition of Labor Union Women was founded by 3,200 women to develop action programs within the framework of the labor movement. At present, 40 chapters have been chartered in the United States, served by a national coordinator and volunteers from all over the country. CLUW has prepared a booklet titled "Effective Contract Language for Union Women," providing examples of nonsexist language and sample contract clauses on nondiscrimination, child care, pregnancy benefits, maternity leave, and equal pay for work of comparable worth.

In January 1980, CLUW and the Industrial Union Department, AFL-CIO, cosponsored the first meeting aimed at organizing nonunion women workers, with 200 national labor officials and women union leaders at the conference hoping to forge an alliance between their organizations. CLUW is currently engaged in a foundation-funded project, "The Empowerment of Union Women," addressing the limited leadership roles of women in American labor unions.

AFSCME (American Federation of State, County and Municipal Employees) Women's Division conducted four regional conferences to determine the problems and remedies women members wanted to have acted on. Among the results of these meetings are guidelines on how to form a women's committee within the union, and a women's rights manual. A national conference for clerical workers is being planned. Leadership within the union and participation in political action and legislative programs are stressed in AFSCME's women's activities.

Social Security and Other Retirement Income

The Women's Equity Action League (WEAL), which together with its Educational and Legal Defense Fund, has been very active in seeking the legal and economic rights of women in higher education, helped develop the concept that the nation's social security should undergo major reform in recognition of the economic contribution of women who choose to devote themselves to family responsibilties rather than paid work. Thus a couple's income would be credited equally to husband and wife for social security purposes, and each would be eligible for retirement or disability benefits under his or her own account.

Many nongovernmental organizations helped plan and have participated in the national and regional symposia held recently as part of the effort to elicit citizen recommendations as to possible changes in a program that affects the vast majority of women as workers and/or as "dependents" of workers. Some organizations are actively continuing the dialog. For example, the National Women's Division of the American Jewish Congress, one of the several nongovernmental organizations which offered its views last spring to the Task Force on Social Security and Women of the House Select Committee on Aging, joined with the Coalition of 100 Black Women in November 1979 to hold a Symposium on Women and Social Security, developing proposals and strategies for reform and an agenda for action.

The Pension Rights Center is a nonprofit public interest group supported by grants and contributions, organized to protect and promote the rights of people who look to private pension plans for a secure retirement income. It issues fact sheets to help people understand their rights under the law dealing with private pension plans. A recent publication focuses on women (whom it terms the group most disadvantaged by the private pension system), explaining widows' benefits and personal coverage details as well as independent retirement provisions.

Entrepreneurship

The National Association of Women Business Owners began in the early 70's. NAWBO now has 12 chapters, with membership of women business owners. It has published directories of women business owners in three cities as a marketing tool for women who own companies. Local chapters offer workshops and seminars for their areas. NAWBO has prepared informational packets and training materials for interested women.

The American Association of Community and Junior Colleges, in conjunction with the Small Business Administration, has completed its 1978-79 scheduled training of 3,000 women entrepreneurs and is planning programs for 6,000 additional women in 1980.

The YWCA of Hackensack, N.J., and the Rutgers University Small Business Development Center cosponsored a program for women on the broad issues in the development and administration of self-owned business, resources needed and where such are available to start and maintain a business enterprise.

The National Committee on Household Employment, whose years of effort along with those of affiliated organizations of household technicians were instrumental in the extension of Federal minimum wage protection to many private household workers as of May 1974, is involved in developing entrepreneurial opportunities for household workers through the establishment of household service firms. A recent NCHE handbook notes that household employment is composed largely of women from minority groups who have never been offered an opportunity to work "on their own terms." It is hoped that by becoming partners in their own businesses household workers will find more employment satisfaction, and at the same time be able to help change society's attitude toward the profession.

SUMMARY

The first half of the United Nations Decade for Women has coincided with significant changes in social and economic trends of American women. Marital and familial patterns have changed--people are choosing to delay or refrain from marriage, to have fewer children, and, increasingly, to terminate marriage by divorce. From 1975 to 1979, the number of women aged 16 years and over increased by 6.4 percent--from 80 to 85 million persons--but the number who chose to be part of the Nation's civilian labor force increased by an astounding 17.3 percent--from 37 to 43 million. In 1979, for the first time, more than half of all women were working or seeking work. Many of these women were mothers. Almost 2 out of 3 mothers maintaining families were in the labor force. The median weekly family income in the first quarter of 1979 of mothers maintaining families was $198, in sharp contrast to the median of $396 garnered by two-parent families.

Other groups of women were economically disadvantaged. Among these were so-called displaced homemakers who have lost their source of income because of divorce, separation, or death of their husbands. Many are at mid-life and have no job skills or credits toward social security benefits in their own right; they need special assistance in order to make a decent living. Women over the age of 60 often give up actively seeking employment. Elderly women are the group with the highest incidence of poverty. At the other end of the age scale, teenage women have the highest incidence of unemployment--and minority teenagers have an unemployment rate six times that of all women. Women of Hispanic origin and black women also have special problems in getting employment, especially in certain well paying white-collar occupations.

The gap between the average annual earnings of men and women full-time year-round workers has shown little change over the last 5 years. Part of the stagnation in women's relative earnings has been attributed to the fact that a higher proportion of the female work force now consists of younger and less experienced women and older reentrants whose job skills are no longer current. This counteracts the progress made in moving women into higher paying occupations and industries traditionally dominated by men. Since research has shown that women's employment in the less traditional jobs results in increased earnings, and since more young women are acquiring nontraditional skills and perceive themselves as having more types of employment opportunities, it is possible that the remaining half of the Decade for Women will at last see some progress in closing the earnings gap.

Serious attention to the problems of women workers in this country began six decades ago, with the establishment in the Department of Labor of a Women's Bureau to formulate standards and policies to promote the welfare of wage-earning women. A Presidential Commission established in 1961 provided the impetus for a fresh attempt to eliminate barriers to the full participation of women in economic, social, civil and political affairs. Federal legislation to prohibit pay discrimination based on sex was enacted in 1963, and a year later Congress approved a sweeping civil rights law that prohibited discrimination on the basis of race, color, religion, national origin, or sex in all terms, conditions, or privileges of employment.

By the time the Decade for Women began, civil rights leaders within Congress regularly inserted a nondiscrimination clause in laws establishing programs expending Federal funds, whether directly or through grants. Court decisions and voluntary conciliation agreements resulted in significant backpay for female and minority member victims of past discrimination. Even more significant were the future pay rates and promotion opportunities required to "make whole" those victims. Publicizing the costs of such settlements undoubtedly influenced many more companies to examine their own employment policies and undertake corrective measures as needed. Recently action has been taken to centralize in one agency, the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC), the responsibility to lead and coordinate the Government's work to maximize effort, promote efficiency, and eliminate conflict, competition, duplication, and inconsistency in administering the various antidiscrimination provisions. In addition, the Labor Department has been given direct responsibility for assuring that Federal contractors comply with an Executive order that requires nondiscrimination and positive steps on the part of employers to break down old patterns of segregation and open new employment opportunities to individuals in occupations which had traditionally been closed to them. Further the Supreme Court ruled that the civil rights law does not condemn all private, voluntary affirmative action plans intended to eliminate conspicuous racial imbalance. A 1978 amendment to the law specifically bans discrimination based on pregnancy; together with State laws along the same lines, this will result not only in income maintenance for many workers while they are disabled from childbirth but also in assurance that their temporary absence will not result in "breaks in service."

Among the important policy areas on which attention has been focused recently are: "pay equity" or equal pay for work of comparable value, workplaces that might impair the ability of workers to have children or cause birth defects, and sexual harassment in the workplace. The issue of lower pay for jobs traditionally performed by women than for jobs requiring less skill but traditionally performed by men is being addressed through lawsuits, proposed regulations, hearings, and studies. The Department of Labor and the EEOC have taken steps to inform employers that reproductive hazards are not confined to women workers and that, rather than automatically excluding women of childbearing capacity from certain working environments, the employers must investigate alternatives, particularly the alternative of providing a workplace safe and healthful for both sexes. Both agencies have also issued guidelines intended to eliminate from the workplace harassment, intimidation, and coercion based on sex.

Also under serious discussion in the first half of the Decade and certain to receive continued attention are policies affecting the opportunities and economic rewards for women who have changing and multiple roles. Among these are training policies and programs; proposed modifications in pensions and other job-related benefits, tax systems, and child care policies; and the availability of part-time and flexible work schedules. In addition, the Government is attempting to expand opportunities for women to become entrepreneurs.

A major national effort is underway to ensure women equal treatment through an Equal Rights Amendment to the Federal Constitution. The deadline for ratification is June 1982. Meanwhile attention to the equal rights question has resulted in substantial review and modification of the legal codes of many States and an awareness by the Federal Congress that current enactments should be examined from the viewpoint of equal opportunity and equitable benefits for both sexes.

APPENDIX

Table 1

Women in the Labor Force, 1950-1979

(Women 16 years of age and over)

Year	Total women (in thousands)	Women in labor force as a percent of	
		Total labor force	All women aged 16 years and over
1979	43,391	42.2	51.0
1978	41,878	41.7	50.0
1977	39,952	41.0	48.4
1976	38,414	40.5	47.3
1975	36,998	39.9	46.3
1974	35,825	39.4	45.6
1973	34,510	38.9	44.7
1972	33,277	38.5	43.9
1971	32,091	38.2	43.3
1970	31,520	38.1	43.3
1969	30,512	37.8	42.7
1968	29,204	37.1	41.6
1967	28,360	36.7	41.1
1966	27,299	36.0	40.3
1965	26,200	35.2	39.3
1964	25,412	34.8	38.7
1963	24,704	34.4	38.3
1962	24,014	34.0	37.9
1961	23,806	33.8	38.1
1960	23,240	33.4	37.7
1959	22,483	32.9	37.1
1958	22,118	32.7	37.1
1957	21,732	32.5	36.9
1956	21,461	32.2	36.9
1955	20,548	31.6	35.7
1954	19,678	30.9	34.6
1953	19,382	30.8	34.4
1952	19,269	31.0	34.7
1951	19,016	30.7	34.6
1950	18,389	29.6	33.8

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, "Handbook of Labor Statistics, 1978" and "Employment and Earnings," January 1979 and 1980.

Table 2

Employed Persons, Annual Averages, 1950-1979

(Persons 16 years of age and over)

(Numbers in thousands)

Year	Employed		Difference from preceding year		Percent change from previous year	
	Total	Women	Total	Women	Total	Women
1979	96,945	40,446	2,572	1,564	2.7	4.0
1978	94,373	38,882	3,827	2,197	4.2	6.0
1977	90,546	36,685	3,061	1,590	3.5	4.5
1976	87,485	35,095	2,702	1,542	3.2	4.6
1975	84,783	33,553	-1,153	136	-1.4	.4
1974	85,936	33,417	1,527	971	1.8	3.0
1973	84,409	32,446	2,707	1,374	3.3	4.4
1972	81,702	31,072	2,582	1,197	3.3	4.0
1971	79,120	29,875	493	208	.6	.7
1970	78,627	29,667	725	583	.9	2.0
1969	77,902	29,084	1,982	1,277	2.6	4.6
1968	75,920	27,807	1,548	914	2.1	3.4
1967	74,372	26,893	1,477	917	2.0	3.5
1966	72,895	25,976	1,807	1,228	2.5	5.0
1965	71,088	24,748	1,783	917	2.6	3.8
1964	69,305	23,831	1,543	726	2.3	3.1
1963	67,762	23,105	1,060	580	1.6	2.6
1962	66,702	22,525	956	435	1.5	2.0
1961	65,746	22,090	-32	216	.0	1.0
1960	65,778	21,874	1,148	710	1.8	3.4
1959	64,630	21,164	1,594	551	2.5	2.7
1958	63,036	20,613	-1,035	-101	-1.6	-.5
1957	64,071	20,714	269	292	.4	1.4
1956	63,802	20,422	1,631	872	2.6	4.5
1955	62,171	19,550	2,061	1,060	3.4	5.7
1954	60,110	18,490	-1,071	-260	-1.8	-1.4
1953	61,181	18,750	927	180	1.5	1.0
1952	60,254	18,570	292	388	.5	2.1
1951	59,962	18,182	1,042	842	1.8	4.9
1950	58,920	17,340	1,271	617	2.2	3.7

Source: U.S. Departments of Labor and Health, Education, and Welfare, "Employment and Training Report of the President, 1978," and U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, "Employment and Earnings," January 1979 and 1980.

Table 3

Unemployment Rates of Women and Men, Annual Averages
1950-1979

(Persons 16 years of age and over)

Year	Number of women unemployed (in thousands)	Percent of labor force unemployed		
		Both sexes	Women	Men
1979	2,945	5.8	6.8	5.1
1978	2,996	6.0	7.2	5.2
1977	3,267	7.0	8.2	6.2
1976	3,320	7.7	8.6	7.0
1975	3,445	8.5	9.3	7.9
1974	2,408	5.6	6.7	4.8
1973	2,064	4.9	6.0	4.1
1972	2,205	5.6	6.6	4.9
1971	2,217	5.9	6.9	5.3
1970	1,853	4.9	5.9	4.4
1969	1,428	3.5	4.7	2.8
1968	1,397	3.6	4.8	2.9
1967	1,468	3.8	5.2	3.1
1966	1,324	3.8	4.8	3.2
1965	1,452	4.5	5.5	4.0
1964	1,581	5.2	6.2	4.6
1963	1,598	5.7	6.5	5.2
1962	1,488	5.5	6.2	5.2
1961	1,717	6.7	7.2	6.4
1960	1,366	5.5	5.9	5.4
1959	1,320	5.5	5.9	5.3
1958	1,504	6.8	6.8	6.8
1957	1,018	4.3	4.7	4.1
1956	1,039	4.1	4.8	3.8
1955	998	4.4	4.9	4.2
1954	1,188	5.5	6.0	5.3
1953	632	2.9	3.3	2.8
1952	698	3.0	3.6	2.8
1951	834	3.3	4.4	2.8
1950	1,049	5.3	5.7	5.1

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, "Handbook of Labor Statistics, 1978," and "Employment and Earnings," January 1979 and 1980.

Table 4

Labor Force Participation Rates for Persons 16 Years and Over, 1975-1979

Age groups	1979	1978	1977	1976	1975
Women					
16 years and over	51.0	50.0	48.4	47.3	46.3
16-19 years	54.5	53.9	51.4	49.9	49.3
20-24 years	69.1	68.3	66.5	65.0	64.1
25-29 years	65.7	64.2	61.7	59.2	57.0
30-34 years	61.8	59.7	56.8	54.6	51.7
35-39 years	63.4	60.9	59.4	57.2	54.9
40 years and over	38.6	38.2	37.5	37.3	37.2
Men					
16 years and over	77.9	77.9	77.7	77.5	77.9
16-19 years	61.7	72.1	61.0	59.4	59.2
20-24 years	86.6	86.0	85.7	85.2	84.6
25-29 years	94.8	94.7	94.6	94.3	94.5
30-34 years	96.1	96.1	96.3	96.4	96.3
35-39 years	96.3	96.3	96.1	95.9	96.2
40 years and over	67.8	68.3	68.6	69.2	70.4
Black and Other Minority Races					
Women					
16 years and over	53.5	53.3	50.9	50.2	49.2
16-19 years	38.0	38.1	33.6	33.5	35.6
20-24 years	61.6	62.8	59.4	57.9	56.2
25-34 years	69.0	68.7	66.5	65.3	61.4
35-44 years	67.5	67.1	63.7	62.2	61.7
45 years and over	39.1	38.9	38.1	38.4	38.3
Men					
16 years and over	71.9	72.1	71.0	70.7	71.5
16-19 years	43.9	45.4	43.4	42.1	42.7
20-24 years	80.1	78.0	78.2	78.4	78.4
25-34 years	90.6	90.9	90.4	90.6	91.4
35-44 years	90.9	91.0	19.4	90.6	90.0
45 years and over	59.8	60.7	58.9	59.2	61.2

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, "Employment and Earnings," January 1976-80.

Table 5

Women's Labor Force Participation Rates, by Marital Status, March 1950, 1960, 1970, 1975 and 1979

Marital status	1979	1975	1970	1960	1950
Total	50.7	45.9	42.6	34.8	31.4
Single	62.7	56.7	53.0	44.1	50.5
Married:					
husband present	49.4	44.4	40.8	30.5	23.8
husband absent	58.8	54.8	52.1	51.8	47.4
Widowed	22.6	24.3	26.4	29.8 }	36.0
Divorced	74.0	72.1	71.5	71.6 }	

Note: Data for 1950 and 1960 are for persons 14 years of age and over; data for 1970, 1975 and 1979 are for persons 16 years of age and over.

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, Current Population Report P-50, No. 29 and U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, Special Labor Force Reports 13, 130, and 183 and unpublished data.

Table 6

Labor Force Status of Women Who Maintain Families, 1975 and 1979

(Numbers in thousands)

Labor force status	1979	1975
Civilian noninstitutional population	8,417	7,238
Civilian labor force	4,993	3,933
Employed	4,581	3,541
Unemployed	413	392
Unemployment rate	8.3	10.0
Not in labor force	3,424	3,305

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, "Employment and Earnings," January 1980 and "Marital and Family Characteristics of the Labor Force," March 1975, Special Labor Force Report 183.

Table 7

Labor Force Status of Women 16 Years and Over, by Marital Status and Age of Children, March 1975 and 1979

(Numbers in thousands)

Marital and labor force status	1979 Total	1979 Children under 18	1979 Children under 6	1975 Total	1975 Children under 18	1975 Children under 6
Women 16 years and over, total	84,686	30,482	13,317	79,477	29,820	13,850
In labor force	42,971	16,616	6,046	36,505	14,145	5,392
Labor force participation rate	50.7	54.5	45.4	46.5	47.4	38.9
Unemployment rate	6.6	7.3	10.0	9.5	N.A.	N.A.
Never married	17,564	913	613	14,915	N.A.	N.A.
In labor force	11,006	493	303	8,464	N.A.	N.A.
Labor force participation rate	62.7	54.0	49.4	56.7	N.A.	N.A.
Unemployment rate	9.7	20.7	21.8	12.4	N.A.	N.A.
Married, husband present	48,239	24,765	11,110	47,547	25,432	12,115
In labor force	23,832	12,858	4,795	21,111	11,408	4,437
Labor force participation rate	49.4	51.9	43.2	44.4	44.9	36.6
Unemployment rate	5.1	6.2	8.5	8.5	N.A.	N.A.
Married, husband absent	3,075	1,679	770	17,015	4,388	1,735
In labor force	1,808	1,001	409	6,932	2,737	955
Labor force participation rate	58.8	59.6	53.1	40.7	62.4	55.0
Unemployment rate	9.8	12.6	18.2	8.9	N.A.	N.A.
Widowed	10,450	694	89	10,104	N.A.	N.A.
In labor force	2,358	344	33	2,453	N.A.	N.A.
Labor force participation rate	22.6	49.5	36.5	24.3	N.A.	N.A.
Unemployment rate	5.2	9.0	N.A.	5.5	N.A.	N.A.
Divorced	5,359	2,431	736	3,982	N.A.	N.A.
In labor force	3,967	1,920	508	2,873	N.A.	N.A.
Labor force participation rate	74.0	79.9	68.9	72.1	N.A.	N.A.
Unemployment rate	6.1	7.6	10.4	8.3	N.A.	N.A.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, "Marital and Family Characteristics of the Labor Force," March 1975, Special Labor Force Report No. 183 and Press Release No. 79-747, October 1979.

Table 8

Employment Status of Women by Race/Ethnic Group, 1976 and 1979

(Numbers in thousands)

	1979	1976
Women, 16 years and over:		
Civilian labor force	43,391	38,414
Employed	40,446	35,095
Unemployed	2,945	3,320
Unemployment rate	6.8	8.6
Labor force participation rate	51.0	47.3
White women, 16 years and over:		
Civilian labor force	37,528	33,371
Employed	35,304	30,739
Unemployed	2,224	2,632
Unemployment rate	5.9	7.9
Labor force participation rate	50.6	46.9
Black women, 16 years and over:		
Civilian labor force	4,984	4,369
Employed	4,324	3,748
Unemployed	660	621
Unemployment rate	13.2	14.2
Labor force participation rate	53.1	49.8
Other minority women, 16 years and over:		
Civilian labor force	879	675
Employed	817	608
Unemployed	62	67
Unemployment rate	7.1	9.9
Labor force participation rate	56.0	52.3
All Hispanic women, 20 years and over:		
Civilian labor force	1,731	1,408
Employed	1,577	1,246
Unemployed	154	162
Unemployment rate	8.9	11.5
Labor force participation rate	47.9	44.4
Mexican women, 20 years and over:		
Civilian labor force	989	753
Employed	892	664
Unemployed	98	89
Unemployment rate	9.9	11.8
Labor force participation rate	48.2	45.3
Puerto Rican women, 20 years and over:		
Civilian labor force	185	164
Employed	167	144
Unemployed	17	20
Unemployment rate	9.3	12.1
Labor force participation rate	35.3	32.0
Cuban women, 20 years and over:		
Civilian labor force	157	146
Employed	145	132
Unemployed	12	15
Unemployment rate	7.9	9.9
Labor force participation rate	55.1	50.7

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, "Employment and Earnings," January 1976 and 1980.

Table 9

Women Employees on Nonagricultural Payrolls, by Industry Division, 1970-October 1979

(Numbers in thousands)

Industry	Oct. 1979	Annual averages								
		1978	1977	1976	1975	1974	1973	1972	1971	1970
Total	37,629	34,996	32,994	31,498	30,157	30,026	28,924	27,404	26,301	26,060
Mining	94	75	65	58	52	45	40	37	37	37
Contract construction	388	332	268	245	231	234	221	205	188	177
Manufacturing	6,576	6,172	5,816	5,590	5,259	5,819	5,803	5,411	5,191	5,436
Durable	3,137	2,868	2,612	2,446	2,274	2,606	2,547	2,259	2,111	2,278
Nondurable	3,439	3,305	3,204	3,144	2,985	3,213	3,256	3,152	3,080	3,158
Transportation and public utilities	1,260	1,117	1,036	986	982	1,000	975	943	943	953
Wholesale and retail trade	8,798	8,218	7,677	7,404	7,053	7,003	6,712	6,342	6,095	5,997
Wholesale	1,339	1,216	1,079	1,039	1,002	1,004	956	899	871	877
Retail	7,459	7,002	6,597	6,365	6,052	5,999	5,756	5,443	5,225	5,120
Finance, insurance, and real estate	2,932	2,687	2,523	2,377	2,293	2,246	2,141	2,033	1,960	1,907
Services	10,095	9,242	8,648	8,184	7,737	7,410	7,020	6,666	6,395	6,222
Government	7,486	7,153	6,961	6,656	6,550	6,270	6,012	5,767	5,491	5,331
Federal	871	869	859	808	805	798	780	747	715	723
State and local	6,615	6,283	6,102	5,848	5,745	5,472	5,232	5,020	4,776	4,608

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, "Handbook of Labor Statistics, 1978," and "Employment and Earnings," January 1980.

Table 10

Women as Percent of Total Employment in Selected Occupations, 1974-1979

(Numbers in thousands)

Occupation	1979		1978		1977		1976		1975		1974		Percent change 1975-1979
	Total employment	Women as percent of total	Total employment	Women as percent of total	Total employment	Women as percent of total	Total employment	Women as percent of total	Total employment	Women as percent of total	Total employment	Women as percent of total	
Professional and technical	15,050	43.3	14,245	42.7	13,692	42.6	13,329	42.0	12,748	41.3	12,338	40.5	23.8
Accountants	1,045	32.9	975	30.1	868	27.5	866	26.9	782	24.6	803	23.7	79.2
Computer specialist	534	26.0	428	23.1	371	23.2	387	19.1	363	21.2	311	19.0	80.5
Industrial engineers	245	7.3	206	8.7	214	7.0	201	4.5	187	2.7	193	(1/)	260.0
Lawyers and judges	499	12.4	499	9.4	462	9.5	413	9.2	392	7.1	359	7.0	121.4
Librarians	188	80.9	187	84.5	193	83.4	183	82.4	180	81.1	N.A.	N.A.	4.1
Life and physical scientists	280	18.9	273	17.9	275	15.6	282	12.1	277	14.4	246	15.9	32.5
Physicians	431	10.7	424	11.3	403	11.2	368	12.8	354	13.0	346	9.8	--
Registered nurses	1,223	96.8	1,112	96.7	1,063	96.7	999	96.6	935	97.0	904	98.0	30.5
Elementary teachers	1,374	84.3	1,304	84.0	1,313	84.2	1,383	84.8	1,332	85.4	1,297	84.3	1.8
Secondary teachers	1,213	50.7	1,154	51.6	1,157	51.2	1,188	50.5	1,184	49.2	1,186	48.3	5.5
Surveyors	85	3.5	82	2.4	68	1.5	69	1.4	70	--	N.A.	N.A.	--
Airplane pilots	72	--	69	1.4	64	--	64	--	60	--	N.A.	N.A.	--
Managers and administrators	10,516	24.6	10,105	23.4	9,662	22.3	9,315	20.8	8,891	19.4	8,941	18.5	49.9
Bank officials and financial managers	620	31.6	573	30.4	543	27.3	546	24.7	518	23.6	510	21.4	60.7
School administrators (elementary and secondary)	299	37.5	275	35.6	265	36.2	282	32.6	263	28.1	352	27.8	51.4
Clerical workers	17,613	80.3	16,904	79.6	16,106	78.9	15,558	78.7	15,128	77.8	15,043	77.6	20.2
Typists	1,020	96.7	1,044	96.6	1,006	96.3	983	96.7	1,025	96.6	1,038	96.2	.4
Craft and kindred workers	12,880	5.7	12,386	5.6	11,881	5.0	11,278	4.8	10,972	4.6	11,477	4.5	46.1
Carpenters	1,276	1.3	1,253	1.0	1,171	.9	1,021	.7	988	.6	1,073	(1/)	183.3
Painters, construction and maintenance	483	5.0	484	5.2	461	3.3	413	2.9	420	3.8	456	(1/)	50.0
Machinists and job setters	642	3.3	591	3.0	576	2.6	570	2.9	557	2.5	558	(1/)	50.0
Auto mechanics	1,272	.6	1,209	.6	1,161	.9	1,124	.6	1,102	.5	1,041	(1/)	33.3
Printing craft workers	455	22.2	417	21.8	389	22.4	380	19.2	375	17.6	386	18.1	53.0
Telephone installers and repairers	302	9.9	297	6.7	279	5.0	282	5.0	314	4.8	349	4.9	100.0
Operatives, including transport	14,521	32.0	14,416	31.7	13,830	31.4	13,356	31.2	12,856	30.2	13,919	31.1	19.6
Meat cutters and butchers, manufacturing	89	31.5	114	28.9	88	35.2	87	29.9	100	27.0	N.A.	N.A.	3.7
Punch and stamping press operatives	158	29.1	156	30.1	152	36.2	155	32.9	130	27.7	170	30.6	27.8
Sewers and stitchers	810	95.3	814	94.8	820	95.2	812	95.9	803	95.8	858	95.8	.4
Bus drivers	358	45.5	337	45.1	339	42.2	332	39.5	310	37.7	265	37.4	39.3
Truck drivers	1,965	2.1	1,923	1.9	1,898	1.3	1,741	1.2	1,694	1.1	1,752	(1/)	121.1
Service workers	12,834	62.4	12,839	62.6	12,392	62.0	12,005	61.5	11,657	62.3	11,373	62.9	10.3
Cleaners and servants	485	97.3	530	97.0	574	96.5	553	97.1	599	97.3	588	97.6	-23.5
Waiters	1,363	89.4	1,383	90.5	1,310	90.4	1,259	90.7	1,183	91.1	1,182	91.8	13.1
Nursing aides, orderlies	1,024	87.5	1,037	87.0	1,008	86.3	1,002	86.8	1,001	85.8	959	86.9	4.3
Hairdressers and cosmetologists	575	89.2	542	89.1	526	88.2	534	88.0	504	90.5	498	92.4	12.5
Protective service	1,406	8.8	1,358	8.5	1,324	7.9	1,302	6.4	1,290	6.3	1,254	6.4	51.2

1/ Percent not shown where employment estimate is less than 35,000.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, Employment and Earnings, June 1975 and January 1976, 1977, 1978, 1979 and 1980.

Table 11

Women as a Percent of Total Employment, by Major Occupation Group, Annual Averages for Selected Years, 1960-1979

Occupation group	Annual averages 1979	1978	1977	1975	1970	1960
Percent of total employed	41.7	41.2	40.5	39.6	37.7	33.3
Professional and technical workers	43.3	42.7	42.6	41.3	38.6	36.2
Managers and administrators (except farm)	24.6	23.4	22.3	19.4	15.9	15.6
Sales workers	45.1	44.8	43.3	42.5	43.1	39.8
Clerical workers	80.3	79.6	78.9	77.8	74.6	67.8
Craft and kindred workers	5.7	5.6	5.0	4.6	3.3	2.6
Operatives, except transport	39.9	39.7	39.6	38.4	30.9	27.9
Transport equipment operatives	8.1	7.3	6.8	5.7		
Nonfarm laborers	11.3	10.4	9.4	8.6	3.7	2.3
Private household workers	97.6	97.7	97.0	97.4	97.4	98.5
Other service workers	59.2	59.1	58.3	58.3	60.2	53.5
Farmers and farm managers	9.6	8.9	6.4	6.4	4.6	3.9
Farm laborers and supervisors	27.7	28.6	29.4	26.7	32.4	35.3
Percent Distribution of Employed Women						
Total employed (in thousands)	40,446	38,881	36,685	33,553	29,667	21,874
Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Professional and technical workers	16.1	15.6	15.9	15.7	14.5	12.4
Managers and administrators (except farm)	6.4	6.1	5.9	5.2	4.5	5.0
Sales workers	6.9	6.9	6.8	6.9	7.0	7.7
Clerical workers	35.0	34.6	34.7	35.1	34.5	30.3
Craft and kindred workers	1.8	1.8	1.6	1.5	1.1	1.0
Operatives, except transport	10.8	11.1	11.2	11.0	14.5	15.2
Transport equipment operatives	.7	.7	.6	.5		
Nonfarm laborers	1.3	1.3	1.2	1.1	.5	.4
Private household workers	2.6	2.9	3.1	3.4	5.1	8.9
Other service workers	17.2	17.7	17.9	18.2	16.5	14.8
Farmers and farm managers	.3	.3	.3	.3	.3	.5
Farm laborers and supervisors	.9	1.0	1.0	1.1	1.5	3.2

Source: U.S. Departments of Labor and Health, Education, and Welfare, "Employment and Training Report of the President, 1979," and "Employment and Earnings," January 1980.

Table 12

Comparison of Median Earnings of Year-Round Full-Time Workers, by Sex, 1955-1978

(Persons 14 years of age and over)

Year	Median earnings: Women (1)	Median earnings: Men (2)	Earnings gap in dollars (3)	Women's earnings as a percent of men's (4)	Percent men's earnings exceeded women's (5)	Earnings gap in constant 1967 dollars (6)
1978	$9,350	$15,730	$6,380	59.4	68.2	$3,267
1977	8,618	14,626	6,008	58.9	69.7	3,310
1976	8,099	13,455	5,356	60.2	66.1	3,141
1975	7,504	12,758	5,254	58.8	70.0	3,259
1974	6,772	11,835	5,063	57.2	74.8	3,433
1973	6,335	11,186	4,851	56.6	76.6	3,649
1972	5,903	10,202	4,299	57.9	72.8	3,435
1971	5,593	9,399	3,806	59.5	68.0	3,136
1970	5,323	8,966	3,643	59.4	68.4	3,133
1969	4,977	8,227	3,250	60.5	65.3	2,961
1968	4,457	7,664	3,207	58.2	72.0	3,079
1967	4,150	7,182	3,032	57.8	73.1	3,032
1966	3,973	6,848	2,875	58.0	72.4	2,958
1965	3,823	6,375	2,552	60.0	66.8	2,700
1964	3,690	6,195	2,505	59.6	67.9	2,696
1963	3,561	5,978	2,417	59.6	67.9	2,637
1962	3,446	5,974	2,528	59.5	73.4	2,790
1961	3,351	5,644	2,293	59.4	68.4	2,559
1960	3,293	5,417	2,124	60.8	64.5	2,394
1959	3,193	5,209	2,016	61.3	63.1	2,308
1958	3,102	4,927	1,825	63.0	58.8	2,108
1957	3,008	4,713	1,705	63.8	56.7	2,023
1956	2,827	4,466	1,639	63.3	58.0	2,014
1955	2,719	4,252	1,533	63.9	56.4	1,911

Notes: For 1967-78, data include wage and salary income and earnings from self-employment; for 1955-66, data include wage and salary income only.

Column 3 = column 2 minus column 1.
Column 4 = column 1 divided by column 2.
Column 5 = column 2 minus column 1, divided by column 1.
Column 6 = column 3 times the purchasing power of the consumer dollar (1967 = $1.00).

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census: "Money Income of Families and Persons in the United States," Current Population Reports, 1957 to 1977, and "Money Income and Poverty Status of Families and Persons in the United States: 1978." (Advance Report)

Table 13

Median Usual Weekly Earnings of Full-Time Wage and Salary Workers, by Sex and Occupational Group, Second Quarter 1979 (Preliminary)

(Workers 16 years of age and over)

Occupation group	Women	Men	Women's earnings as percent of men's
Total	$183	$295	62
Professional and technical workers	261	375	70
Managers and administrators, except farm	232	386	60
Sales workers	154	297	52
Clerical workers	180	287	63
Craft and kindred workers	189	305	62
Operatives, except transport	156	257	61
Transport equipment operatives	194	277	70
Nonfarm laborers	166	220	75
Service workers	138	203	68
Farm workers	125	153	82

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, "Women in the Labor Force: Some New Data Series," 1979.

Table 14

Civilian Labor Force, 1975 and 1979 and Projected 1985 and 1990

(Persons 16 years of age and over)

Sex	Actual		Projected					
			High growth		Intermediate growth		Low growth	
	1979	1975	1985	1990	1985	1990	1985	1990
	(Numbers in thousands)							
Total	102,908	92,613	117,005	125,603	112,953	119,366	108,900	113,521
Men	59,517	55,615	65,013	68,220	63,007	65,115	61,169	62,472
Women	43,391	36,998	51,992	57,383	49,945	54,253	47,731	51,049
	Labor force participation rate							
Total	64.2	61.2	67.7	69.7	65.3	66.2	63.0	63.0
Men	77.9	77.9	79.4	80.0	77.0	76.4	74.7	73.3
Women	51.0	46.3	57.1	60.4	54.8	57.1	52.4	53.8

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, "Labor Force Projections to 1990: Three Possible Paths," Monthly Labor Review, December 1978, pp. 25-35 and "Employment and Earnings," January 1976 and 1980.

Table 15

SUMMARY OF LAWS AND EXECUTIVE ORDERS FOR NONDISCRIMINATION AND EQUAL OPPORTUNITY PROGRAMS

Program area	No. of laws and Executive orders (note a)	No. of times prohibited basis of discrimination is mentioned in program category											
		Race	Color	Religion, creed belief	Sex	National origin	Marital status	Physical handicap	Political affiliation	Age	Moral belief or conviction	Economic status	Alien status
Employment	65	47	43	37	43	38	3	13	1	12	3	3	1
Public Services, Benefits and Facilities Programs	31	21	20	15	19	18	2	8	6	7	2	3	1
Housing	18	14	14	9	8	11	3	4	2	4	2	2	1
Education	20	14	1	9	12	11	2	4	3	3	2	2	3
Credit	10	9	9	6	5	6	3	2	2	3	2	2	3
Public Accommodations	10	10	10	7	4	7	2	3	2	2	2	2	3
Voting and Jury Service Programs	13	12	12	5	4	7	2	2	3	4	2	3	3
Criminal and General Civil Remedy Programs	13	12	12	7	5	7	2	2	3	3	2	2	3

a/ We identified a total of 87 citations to Federal laws and Executive orders for nondiscrimination and equal opportunity programs. Many of these citations affect more than one program area, and as a result, the number of laws and Executive orders in this column total more than 87.

From U.S. General Accounting Office
Staff Study, August 2, 1978

Table 16

Women as Percent of Total Employed by Employers Reporting to EEOC, by Occupation Group, 1970, 1975, and 1978 1/

		White collar						Blue collar				
	Total employment	Total white collar	Officials and managers	Professional workers	Technicians	Sales workers	Office and clerical workers	Total blue collar	Craft workers	Operatives	Laborers	Service workers
1970												
Total	28,882,554	13,347,303	2,541,542	2,432,779	1,279,482	2,213,806	4,879,694	13,534,701	3,943,886	6,926,572	2,664,243	2,000,550
Female	9,969,181	5,877,027	260,921	610,007	345,051	940,238	3,720,810	3,093,429	273,773	2,060,285	759,371	998,725
Percent female	34.5	44.0	10.3	25.1	27.0	42.5	76.3	22.8	6.9	29.7	28.5	49.9
1975												
Total	29,944,509	14,599,866	3,179,848	2,439,917	1,450,366	2,634,394	4,895,341	12,970,488	4,028,797	6,468,969	2,472,722	2,374,156
Female	11,122,964	6,850,709	450,193	731,027	483,674	1,258,587	3,927,228	3,005,271	287,387	1,958,373	759,511	1,266,984
Percent female	37.1	46.9	14.2	30.0	33.3	47.8	80.2	23.2	7.1	30.3	30.7	53.4
1978												
Total	36,028,647	17,952,982	3,971,933	2,963,481	1,729,051	3,629,481	5,659,036	14,715,787	4,391,854	7,317,451	3,006,482	3,359,878
Female	14,395,145	8,830,993	688,645	1,003,571	647,749	1,840,339	4,650,689	3,730,181	378,275	2,331,864	1,020,042	1,833,971
Percent female	40.0	49.2	17.3	33.9	37.5	50.7	82.2	25.3	8.6	31.9	33.9	54.6
Percent gain 1970-1978	+5.5	+5.2	+7.0	+8.8	+10.5	+8.2	+5.9	+2.5	+1.7	+2.2	+5.4	+4.7

1/ Employers of 100 or more workers are required to file annually on Standard Form 100 (Employer Information Report EEO-1). They account for approximately 48 percent of private, nonagricultural employment.

Source: U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission. "Job Patterns for Minorities and Women in Private Industry," 1973, 1977, and unpublished data.

APPENDIX B

REFERENCE LIST

Berry, Mary F. (Office of Education, U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. Excerpts of statement. June 12, 1979. (Before Standing Conference of European Ministers of Education)

Blumrosen, Ruth G. Wage Discrimination, Job Segregation and Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, University of Michigan Journal of Law Reform, Vol. 12, No. 3, Spring 1979.

Butz, William P. and Michael P. Ward. Baby Boom and Baby Bust: A New View. (Reprint from September 1979 American Demographics)

Duncan, Greg J. and James N. Morgan (eds.) Five Thousand Families--Patterns of Economic Progress, Vol. VI. Survey Research Center, Institute for Social Research, the University of Michigan. 1978.

Grasso, John T. and John R. Shea. Vocational Education and Training: Impact on Youth; A Technical Report for the Carnegie Council on Policy Studies in Higher Education. Berkeley, California. 1979.

Herman, Alexis (Women's Bureau, U.S. Department of Labor). Statement. January 31, 1979. (Testimony in hearings on The Coming Decade: American Women and Human Resources Policies and Programs, before the Committee on Labor and Human Resources, U.S. Senate)

Johnson, David and others. Project JOIN, Final Report. Department of Employment Relations, State of Wisconsin. June 1979.

Johnson, Karen (ed.) Child Care. Clearinghouse on Women's Issues in Congress. 1978.

Millsap, Mary Ann. Occupational Segregation. November 1978. (Analysis paper for the U.S. Interdepartmental Task Force on Women)

Norton, Eleanor Holmes (U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission). Statement. February 19, 1980. (Testimony before Subcommittee on State, Justice, Commerce, and the Judiciary, Committee on Appropriations, U.S. Senate).

Ratner, Ronnie Steinberg. Labor Market Inequality and Equal Employment Policy for Women. 1979. (Paper prepared for the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development; General Diagnosis for the High Level Conference on the Employment of Women)

Smith, Ralph L. Women in the Labor Force in 1990. The Urban Institute. Washington, D.C. March 1979.

Stein, Robert L. (Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor). Changes in the Labor Force Activity of Women: 1930's to the Present. June 28, 1979. (Testimony before the U.S. National Commisssion on Unemployment Compensation)

Trieman, Donald J. Job Evaluation: An Analytic Review: Interim Report to the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission. February 1979. (Staff paper prepared for the National Academy of Sciences)

U.S. Commission on Civil Rights:
The Federal Civil Rights Enforcement Effort--1974: To Eliminate Employment Discrimination. July 1975. (Excerpts)

The Federal Civil Rights Enforcement Effort--1977: To Eliminate Employment Discrimination, A Sequel. 1977.

U.S. Congress, Congressional Budget Office. Childcare and Preschool: Options for Federal Support. September 1978.

U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare:
News Releases:
Office for Civil Rights announcement of actions against two public school districts. March 17, 1978.
Statement by Joseph A. Califano, Jr., Secretary. December 6, 1978, and February 15, 1979.
Statement by David S. Tatel, Director, Office for Civil Rights. April 27, 1978, and June 20, 1979.
Regulations:
Annotated Vocational Education Regulations Concerning Sex Equity. In Federal Register, October 3, 1977.
Desegregation of Public Education. In Federal Register, July 26, 1978.
Nondiscrimination in Federally Assisted Programs; Policy Determinations. In Federal Register, May 1, 1978.
Nondiscrimination on the Basis of Sex; Education Programs and Activities Receiving or Benefiting From Federal Financial Assistance. In Federal Register, June 4, 1975.
Sex Discrimination in Health-Related Training Programs. In Federal Register, July 7, 1975.
Title IX and Intercollegiate Athletics; Nondiscrimination on the Basis of Sex in Education Programs and Activities Receiving or Benefiting from Federal Financial Assistance. In Federal Register, December 11, 1978.
Women's Educational Equity Act Program Provisions. (Proposed) In Federal Register, May 25, 1979.
Summary: Social Security and the Changing Roles of Men and Women. 1979.

U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Education Division, National Center for Education Statistics:
Barriers to Women's Participation in Postsecondary Education: A Review of Research and Commentary as of 1973-74. 1975.
Degree Awards to Women: An Update. January 1979.
Women's Representation Among Recipients of Doctor's and First-Professional Degrees, 1970-71 through 1974-75. 1976.

U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education, Office of Career Education. Reducing Sex Stereotyping in Career Education: Some Promising Approaches to Persistent Problems. May 1979.

U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Public Health Service, Office of Health Research, Statistics, and Technology, National Center for Health Statistics. Divorces by Marriage Cohort (marriages from 1922 to 1931 and from 1948 to 1972). August 1979.

U.S. Department of Labor and U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. WIN. 1968-1978: A Report at 10 Years. June 1979.

U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics:
Earnings and Other Characteristics of Organized Workers, May 1977. Report 556. 1979.
Employment and Earnings. May 1979 and January 1980.
Handbook of Labor Statistics, 1978. 1979.
Labor Force Projections to 1990: Three Possible Paths. (Reprint from December 1978 Monthly Labor Review)
Occupational Outlook Handbook, 1978-79 Edition. 1978.
Women in the Labor Force: Some New Data Series. Report 575, 1979.
Women in Labor Organizations: Their Ranks Are Increasing. (Reprint from August 1978 Monthly Labor Review)

U.S. Department of Labor, Employment and Training Administration:
Dual Careers, Volumn 4: A Longitudinal Analysis of the Labor Market Experience of Women. 1976.
Employment and Training Report of the President (Including Reports by the U.S. Department of Labor and the U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare). 1979.
Employment-Related Problems of Older Workers: A Research Strategy, R&D Monograph 73, 1979.
New Approaches to CETA Training: An Overview of Title III National Program for Selected Population Segments. 1979.
Placing Minority Women in Professional Jobs. 1978.
Research Uses of the National Longitudinal Surveys. 1979.
Women and Work. 1977. (Reprint)
Women in Traditionally Male Jobs: The Experience of Ten Public Utility Companies. 1978.
Years of Decision, Volume 4: A Longitudinal Study of the Educational and Labor Market Experience of Young Women. 1978.

U.S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau:
Economic Responsibilities of Working Women. September 1979.
1975 Handbook on Women Workers. 1975.
Mature Women Workers. (Unpublished data)
The Earnings Gap Between Women and Men. 1979.
20 Facts on Women Workers. 1979.
Unemployment in Recessions: Women and Black Workers. April 1977.

U.S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau, and National Manpower Institute. Report of Conference on Community Solutions for Child Care. August 1979.

U.S. General Accounting Office. A Compilation of Federal Laws and Executive Orders for Nondiscrimination and Equal Opportunity Programs. August 2, 1978.

U.S. Library of Congress, Congressional Research Service. Child Care: The Federal Role. June 1978.

U.S. National Commission for Manpower Policy. Women's Changing Roles at Home and on the Job. September 1978.

U.S. National Commission on Employment and Unemployment Statistics:
Counting the Labor Force. Labor Day, 1979.
The Implications of Changing Family Patterns and Behavior for Labor Force and Hardship Measurement. June 1978.

U.S. Supreme Court:
City of Los Angeles, Department of Water and Power et al. v. Manhart et al. No. 76-1810. April 25, 1978. (Syllabus)
United Steelworkers of America, AFL-CIO-CLC v. Weber et al. No. 78-432. June 27, 1979. (Syllabus)